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GENDER, RESOURCES AND ATTITUDES TOWARD MARITAL
ROLE EQUALITY: A COMPARISON OF ALGERIAN
AND AMERICAN STUDENTS

A Dissertation Presented

by

AICHA REZIG

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

September 1985

Psychology

Aicha Rezig 1985



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To my mother

who, after the untimely death
of my father, successfully
played both roles in spite of
the traditional norms, and thus
teaching me the true meaning of
sex equality.

and

in memory of my father

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ABSTRACT

GENDER, RESOURCES AND MARITAL ROLE EQUALITY: A COMPARISON OF ALGERIAN AND AMERICAN STUDENTS

(September 85)

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This study focused on attitudes toward marital role equality in relation to gender and socioeconomic resources, in Algeria and the United States. These countries were chosen to represent two different levels of development. The purpose of the study was to: (1) compare Algerian and American students' attitudes toward sharing family decisions and household tasks equally; (2) compare males and females on the same attitudes; (3) predict their intentions to share family decisions and household tasks with their own future spouses; and (4) assess their judgments of the desirable balance of decision-making and household task performance in relation to spouses' relative resources as described in a series of scenarios.

The questionnaire, which was completed by 314 Algerian students from the University of Algiers, and 192 students from the University of Massachusetts , consisted of three major sections. First, the respondents were divided into three subsamples and were presented with three scenarios in which couples were described as equal or unequal in socioeconomic resources. The respondents were asked to indicate who, in the couple, should make decisions and perform household tasks. In the last two sections, the respondents were asked to think about sharing decisions and household tasks in their future marriage.

As predicted, Americans and women were more egalitarian than Algerians and men, respectively. While males and females differed more in the area of decision-making, Algerians and Americans differed more in the area of household tasks. Gender differences were larger in Algeria than in the United States. Further, the difference between Algerian and American women was smaller than the difference between Algerian and American men. Both males and females reported that they preferred sharing decision-making more than household task performance. The hypothesis that Algerians' intentions would be more predicted from subjective norms than would Americans' intentions was not supported. In both countries, attitudes and perceived control were the major determinants of intentions. Overall, spouses with more resources were assigned more responsibility for money-related decisions, and less responsibility for food shopping, but cultural differences emerged when separate analyses were performed on the Algerian and American sample.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Over three decades ago, Burgess and Locke (1953) reported a change in family norms and a transition from marriage as institution to marriage as companionship. Moreover, they predicted a trend toward more egalitarian marital roles. Undeniably, equal marital relationships are becoming more prevalent; however, asymmetrical relationships still exist. The question of why certain couples have a relatively egalitarian relationship and why others have an asymmetrical one has often been raised, and several possible reasons have been suggested. In this research, the determinants of marital role equality will be examined from three different perspectives, namely, societal, interactional, and individual.

Although societies appear to undergo relatively similar changes, they seem to evolve at different rates. Some of the changes, often referred to as indicators of modernity, are industrialization, urbanization, education, and social mobility. These factors have been found to affect the family unit in different ways. As reported by some researchers (Goode, 1963; Magnarella, 1972) marital roles tend to become more egalitarian as the level of modernity increases. For example, in societies characterized by increasing social mobility more emphasis is placed on the nuclear family, while the strength of extended family ties tends to weaken. Mobile couples are less likely

to form strong networks, and thus husbands and wives are more likely to depend on each other and engage in role sharing (Young & Willmott, 1957; Bott, 1971). In traditional societies, social networks operate to reinforce the already existing sex segregation. Each member of a couple usually interacts with different people (M'rabet, 1964; Magnarella, 1972). Furthermore, in some instances, the extended family prevents the young couple from establishing an affectionate and emotional bond (Auerbach, 1980). In short, societies with different levels of modernity are likely to show differences in the nature of marital relationships and attitudes towards equality.

Traditional marital relationships are characterized by a sharp division of labor and distinction of sex roles. Being confined to the home, the wife is in charge of internal matters such as housework and child care while the husband, who is in contact with the external world, is the breadwinner. The spouses' distinctly different roles create an unequal relationship. The husband provides resources (e.g., income) that are essential to the wife. This allows him to have control over most important decisions. Moreover, he makes use of his power to escape housework activities (Haas, 1981). Thus, the comparative resources provided by each spouse determine the balance of decision-making and the division of labor. Furthermore, the greater the disparity between the spouses' resources, the greater the marital inequality.

In addition to the impact of modernity and the spouses'

comparative resources on marital equality, it is important to take into account the individual's orientation toward marriage. Different couples have different orientations toward marriage. Further, within a couple the spouses may not have the same attitude toward marital roles. Specifically, women tend to have a more egalitarian marriage orientation than do men (Araji, 1976; Segrest & Weeks, 1976).

The social and cultural context, the spouses' relative resources, and the individual orientation toward marriage are factors, among others, contributing to the understanding of marital equality. Further, this understanding will increase when these factors are studied in relation to each other. The purpose of this study was to examine students' attitudes toward marital equality in relation to gender and socioeconomic resources in Algeria and the United States. These two countries were selected to represent two different levels of development. Specifically this study attempted to:

- compare Algerian and American students' attitudes toward sharing decision-making and household task performance equally.
- compare males and females on the same attitudes.
- predict their intentions to share decisions and task performance equally with their future spouse.
- examine the extent to which the perception of the balance of decision-making and domestic task performance is determined by described socioeconomic resources -- namely, family

background, income, occupational status and education.

This study did not examine the impact of each resource but rather focused on the combined resources held by each spouse as described in the different scenarios (see method).

In addition, several predictions, stated later in the chapter, were tested using two theoretical frameworks: the theory of planned behavior and the the theory of resources. Therefore, this study also aimed at showing the extent to which these theories can be applicable in two different cultural settings.

In this study, it is recognized that the samples used are not representative of the cultures from which they were drawn. This is especially true for the Algerian university women who are not typical of the general Algerian female population. Therefore, the differences between Algerians and Americans do not necessarily represent the differences between the two cultures. However, because the samples are similar (student populations), the comparison will be a relatively conservative test of any difference between the two cultures.

The remainder of this chapter consists of two major sections. The first section deals with the impact of gender and level of modernity on attitude toward marital equality. The second one discusses the impact of resources on decision-making and household task performance.

Impact of Gender and Modernity on Attitudes toward Marital Equality

In this section, we shall first provide some information on cross-cultural studies on attitudes. Then, the theory of planned behavior will be described. Finally, we shall show how attitudes could be influenced by gender and modernity.

In their extensive review of the literature dealing with cross-cultural studies on attitudes and behavior, Davidson and Thomson (1980) noted that research in this domain remains rather limited as a result of the behavioral measures used and the lack of functional equivalence. Behaviors in different cultural settings can be compared only if they are functionally equivalent (Berry, 1969). Functional equivalence is achieved when the behavior under study is relevant in two or more cultures. However, the behavior performed does not necessarily need to be the same. For example, parents in different cultures may use different strategies to teach their children to be competent. Functional equivalence cannot be created, but is a naturally occurring phenomenon.

In the area of premarital attitudes, few studies have been conducted comparing eastern & western cultures (Arkoff, Meredith & Iwahara, 1964; Christensen, 1979; Kalish, Maloney & Arkoff, 1966; Podmore & Chaney, 1979), European and American cultures (Murstain, 1979) and western and African cultures (Little, 1979). In addition to the scarcity of cross-cultural research, one notices that certain

societies, e.g. Arab societies have rarely been included in comparative work.

Davidson and Thomson (1980) claimed that in order to do cross-cultural investigation, one needs to be guided by a theoretical model that is supported by empirical research and that is characterized by a high level of abstraction (Davidson, Jaccard, Triandis, Morales, & Diaz-Guerrero, 1976). In this study, the theory of planned behavior will be used as the major theoretical framework.

Theory of Planned Behavior

This theory is derived from the theory of reasoned action which will be described below.

According to the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), the major determinant of behavior is the intention to perform or not perform a given behavior. However, knowing a person's intention does not explain why he/she chooses to perform or not perform the behavior. The next step in the analysis is to examine the determinants of intention.

According to the theory, attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms are the determinants of intention. Attitude "refers to the person's judgment that performing the behavior is good or bad, that he is in favor or against performing the behavior" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; p. 6). Subjective norms refer to "perceived social pressure to perform or not perform a given behavior". Therefore, a person's intention depends on the relative weight assigned to the

attitudinal and normative determinants.

Another step involves the identification of the determinants of attitudes and subjective norms. The immediate determinants of attitudes are beliefs about whether engaging in a behavior will lead to positive or negative outcomes. If the outcomes are seen as positive, the person will hold a positive attitude toward the behavior, but if the outcomes are seen as negative, he will hold a negative attitude.

Normative beliefs are the immediate determinants of subjective norms. A person will feel the pressure to perform a behavior if he/she believes that people who are important to him/her think he/she should perform the behavior. If, on other hand, he/she thinks that they do not want him/her to perform a given behavior he/she will feel the pressure not to perform it.

The theory of reasoned action is based on three assumptions. First, there must be a correspondence between the behavior and the intention. Second, the intention must not change between the time it has been measured and the time the behavior is observed. Third, the behavior under study must be under volitional control.

Contrary to the theory of reasoned action, which takes into account motivational factors (e.g., attitudes and subjective norms), the theory of planned behavior takes into consideration nonmotivational factors, such as, perceived control. According to the theory of reasoned action, perceived control influences intention just

like any other external variable, but for the theory of planned behavior it affects behavioral intention independently of attitudes and subjective norms.

Although the theory of planned behavior does not rely on external variables (e.g., personality factors and age) to understand and predict behavior, it acknowledges the possibility that they may influence the relative importance the individual gives to attitudinal and normative factors. The present study does not intend to show that external variables have a direct impact on the prediction of intention, but it attempts to demonstrate that attitudes and subjective norms could partially be determined by gender and modernity, as discussed below.

Impact of Gender on Attitudes Toward Marital Equality

Several studies showed that women tend to have relatively more egalitarian attitudes toward marriage than do men (Lopata, 1971; Ralling, Anderson, & Weeks, 1974; Segrest & Weeks, 1976; Araj, 1977; Aneshensel & Rosen, 1980).

In their study on role attitudes, Arkoff, Meredith and Iwahara (1964) reported gender differences in the Japanese and Japanese-American samples. Women appeared to have more egalitarian attitudes than did men. These findings were later replicated (Kalish, Maloney, & Arkoff, 1966). In a cross-cultural comparison between French and American students concerning the qualities of desired spouse, Murstein (1979) found that, in both cultures, men tended to

value the woman's traditional submissive role. Men's resistance to marital equality seems to exist even in countries where a great emphasis is placed on sex equality, such as Finland (Haavio-Malia, 1966; 1969) and Sweden (Haas, 1981).

That men are less egalitarian should not really come as a surprise. Equality has a different meaning for people who have high status and those who have low status. Likewise, it conveys a different meaning for men and women. In other words, marital equality has different implications for men and women. By having an equal marital relationship, women are likely to enjoy positive outcomes (or rather regain their own rights) while men are likely to lose the privileges they derive from the power that is either ascribed to them by virtue of their gender or from the resources they are able to provide. This is, according to Hallenbeck (1966), one of the reasons husbands convince their wives to give up work. That also explains why husbands of working wives (especially when wives work full time) are dissatisfied with marriage (Axelson, 1963).

To conclude, women are likely to have more interest in an equal marital relationship than do men. Since sex inequality appears to exist across many different cultures, it was predicted that females in Algeria and in the United States would hold more positive attitudes toward equality in decision-making and task performance than would men.

It was also predicted that the discrepancy in attitudes between females would be smaller than would the discrepancy between males. Since no previous research has been conducted to support this prediction, it should be regarded as tentative. Society still expects the man to be the provider and the woman to be the homemaker. Moreover, Algerian more than American men are under pressure to behave according to cultural norms which emphasize sex role segregation. In addition, liberalization of sex roles implies a loss of certain benefits and privileges. In the United States, men are more likely to be responsive to sex role changes as a result of the increasing women's participation in the labor force and the growing feminist movement. In both countries women are likely to aspire to equality because they belong to the same group of oppressed members of society. In this study, it is assumed that men's attitudes are more influenced by external factors than are women's attitudes.

Although the literature does not specifically provide evidence concerning males' preferences for decision-making versus task performance, in this research it was hypothesized that they would hold more positive attitudes toward the former than toward the latter. This prediction is based on three factors. The first two are related to social norms and values while the third is of practical consideration.

First, in most societies housekeeping and child care have been assigned to women. Thus, it became socially appropriate for females

to perform these roles, while not performing them became socially appropriate for men. This sex related tradition still prevails in spite of the social changes that are taking place. As stated by Oakley (1974):

Despite a reduction of gender differences in the occupational world in recent years, one occupational role remains entirely feminine: the role of housewife. No law bars men from this occupation, but the weight of economic, social and psychological pressure is against their entry into it. (p. 29)

In different words, Safilios-Rothschild (1974) expressed the same idea:

As for men, the option to be "househusband" and father has never existed. And the desire for these options could never be voiced, since it would represent an extreme "deviance" and would tend to be treated as an indication of serious mental disturbance. (p. 111)

Although this role separation seems to exist cross-culturally it is assumed to be more deeply rooted in certain cultures than in others. Specifically, it is likely to exist to a greater extent in Algeria than in the United States. In a study on the Algerian couple, it was reported that the few husbands who help around the house will not admit it to their close friends and family (F.A., 1984). As interpreted by that researcher, Algerian men who tend to tolerate sex role changes are faced with a dilemma. On the one hand, they are tempted to apply equality principles within their private space (home); but on the other hand, in public or in the presence of a third

party they feel the pressure to behave according to social expectations, and the latter emphasize sex role segregation. Decision-making is another sphere that is sex linked. Traditionally, men have had more power in this domain than women. It is, however, assumed that domestic task performance is more strongly related to gender than decision-making. Thus, changes concerning domestic task performance are likely to lag behind those in decision-making. Therefore, men are expected to show more resistance to sharing roles in a sphere that has long been considered exclusively "feminine". In addition, this resistance may be enhanced by the fact that sharing domestic chores is more "visible" than sharing decisions. This might be of greater concern for Algerian men who are used to a great deal of unexpected social visits and would not want to be caught performing socially "unfit" tasks.

Second, men may resist contributing to household work because they perceive it as "women's work". Moreover, it is not considered intrinsically rewarding and worthy of respect, but is rather regarded as demeaning. In an interview study conducted in Algeria (Stambouli, 1984), it was reported that husbands refuse to help around the house because they believe that is it a dishonor for men to do so. In addition, no concrete value such as money is associated with this type of work. Thus, it is often taken for granted by men (Rainwater & Weinstein, 1960).

Third, men may be reluctant to engage in housekeeping and child care because of their time and energy consuming character. That could explain why women's employment does not necessarily lead to egalitarian role relationships (Scinovacz, 1977), even in the most "liberated" countries. A study conducted in Sweden found that only nine percent of the males spent at least one hour per day performing domestic activities (Carlsson, 1977). Furthermore, men do not always take advantage of new social structures and policies to introduce changes into the family unit. For example, no more than 10% of Swedish fathers take parent leave when it is open to either spouse (Rollen, 1978). Thus, family role behaviors do not necessarily reflect societal ideology. Gecas (1976) reports that, although children are socialized according to egalitarian principles, the mother assumes more responsibility for socialization than the father. In short, the difficulty associated with the performance of managing a home and raising a family could partially explain men's resistance to participate.

Impact of Modernity on Attitudes Toward Marital Equality

Recently, the concept of modernity has been the focus of a large body of research because it has been shown to have an impact on individual behaviors and attitudes. Numerous investigators have been interested in the measure of modernity (Coughenour & Stephenson, 1972; Doob, 1960; Inkeles, 1960) and its definition (Williamson, 1970). They have also been interested in its antecedents (Godwin, 1974;

Hagen, 1962; Inkeles, 1977; McClelland, 1961). As a result, several possible determinants have been identified. Industrialization has been regarded as one important determinant of psychological modernity, although conflicting results have been reported (Simpson, 1975). Education (Suzman, 1973), social mobility and urbanization are other important determinants (Magnarella, 1972). The question that needs to be raised is how these indicators of modernity affect the individual. Inkeles and Smith (1974) describe the modern "man" as follows:

He is an informed participant citizen; he has a marked sense of personal efficacy; he is highly independent and autonomous in his relations to traditional sources of influence especially when he is making basic decisions about how to conduct his personal affairs; and he is ready for new experiences and ideas, that is, he is relatively open minded and cognitively flexible. (p. 290)

The next question to be addressed is how these characteristics of individual modernity affect ones' view of marital equality. Since flexibility and modernity seem to be related (Sacks, 1973), it is reasonable to expect modern more than traditional people to accept sex role changes and marital equality. It follows, then, that people from countries representing different levels of modernity will be different in their attitudes toward marital equality and in their behavior, as shown by Williamson (1982). His study compared the degree of sharing decisions and domestic tasks in Italy and Germany. In Italy, patriarchal values have a stronger impact on family norms than they do in Germany. The author found that Italian more than German men preferred the wife to assume the woman's traditional roles. They also

tended more to play the dominant role in decision-making.

In the present study, it was predicted that Algerians would have a less positive attitude toward equality in decision-making and task performance than would Americans. This prediction was based on the fact that the two countries represent different levels of modernity. Coming from a developing country, Algerians are more likely to hold on to traditions than are Americans.

As mentioned previously, one characteristic of individual modernity is autonomy. In other words, modern people express greater individualism, which is reflected in the way they lead their lives. They feel they have control over their lives (Kagitaibasi, 1973), and therefore are less affected by external social pressures. In contrast, less modern people tend to be more significantly influenced by the social environment. This implies respect for traditional institutions, customs and people (Lecompte & Lecompte, 1973). Consequently, decisions regarding different aspects of life such as marital relationships are likely to be influenced by social norms and people. As a result of the different impact of social pressure on people, it was hypothesized that Algerians' intention to share equally decision-making and task performance would be more determined by subjective norms than by their own attitudes.

Impact of Resources on Decision-Making and Task Performance

Although this study primarily focused on premarital attitudes toward equality in decision-making and responsibility for domestic chores, the literature to be reviewed deals with reported behaviors of married couples and is described in terms of power differentials. In using this literature it is assumed that behavior could be used as an indicator of attitudes; it is also assumed that the two notions of equality and power are closely related. As stated by Crosby (1976), unless there is equality of power, the concept of equality is meaningless.

In this section, we shall first provide an overview of the resource theory. Then, we shall examine the impact of resources on the balance of decision-making power and the repartition of household tasks.

Resource Theory

The core of this theory is that an individual possesses resources that are essential to another person's aims, needs, and interests. Resources are defined as:

Properties of a person or group which can be made available to others as instrumental to the satisfaction of their needs or to the attainment of goals. (Wolfe, 1959; p. 100)

Resources could range from tangible possessions to social currency such as love, affection, and companionship (Johnson, 1975;

Safilios-Rothschild, 1970). In this section only the socioeconomic resources will be examined as they have been more researched and give more bargaining power than social resources (Simpson & England, 1981).

A power relationship takes place between the person who owns certain resources and the person who needs those resources. Consequently, the person needing the resources is less likely to have full control over his/her life. In the marriage context, it is generally the wife who exchanges her power for the resources controlled by the husband. In other words, she has no choice but to comply with her husband and be his "junior partner" (Scanzoni, 1980).

The resource theory and the exchange theory are closely related. Cromwell and Olson (1975) claimed that the resource theory may be considered a "variant" of the exchange theory because it is based on three assumptions. First, there is a continuous effort on the part of the individual to satisfy his needs. Second, social interaction allows one to satisfy his needs. Third, social interaction is characterized by an exchange of resources which contribute to the individual's satisfaction.

Although the two theories are closely related, they differ in the following ways (Rodman, 1979). First, the resource theory focuses on the comparative resources each person brings to the relationship while the theory of exchange emphasizes the comparison between the resources obtained within the relationship and those obtained outside the relationship. Second, "resources can be identified as the commodities

that are exchanged while exchanges can refer to the process by which the resources are exchanged" (Rodman, 1979; p. 160).

Impact of Resources on Decision-Making

In their study, Blood and Wolfe (1960) found that power increases as resources increase. Specifically, the husband's decision-making power scores were positively correlated with his income, education, and occupational status. Moreover, the wife's economic dependence enhanced the husband's power.

Lupri (1969) reported that, in Germany, husbands of working wives tend to have less power than husbands of housewives. However, the wife's power decreases with the husband's increasing social status. In other words, working wives of husbands who hold manual jobs gain more decision-making power than do working wives of husbands who hold higher status job. As explained by the author, lower class husbands may need their wives' income more.

In a study conducted in France (Michel, 1967), women who had more education and income were reported to have more authority. It was suggested that:

The values of the couples are also the values of the industrialized society in which money, education and qualification are the basic elements of authority. (p. 344)

The resources mentioned by Michel (1967) have also an impact on the balance of decision-making power in less developed countries. For example, Buric and Zecevic (1967) found that, in Yugoslavia, wives'

power decreased when they were employed. However, they appeared to gain power only in certain areas such as the purchase of furniture. Less decision-making power was obtained in other areas such as spending of leisure time and family planning. Similar findings were reported in Greece (Safilios-Rothschild, 1967).

Although the resource theory has been developed in western culture, it appears to have some implications for other cultures. For example, in Egypt working wives, compared to housewives, have influence over important decisions (e.g., economic and family decisions). It is important to mention that work has a direct impact on women's decision-making power, while education has an indirect effect (Abdelghafar, 1981). Thus, work seems to lead to more bargaining power than education does. Auerbach (1981) found that women, in a small Tunisian town, made use of their independent financial resources to have influence outside and outside the household.

In summary, resources appear to play a significant role in the balance of decision-making power. Further, this seems to hold true in different cultures and in countries having different levels of development.

Impact of Resources on Household Task Performance

Some researchers feel that the influence over domestic activities (things to be done in the house and the family) represent an aspect of power (Herbst, 1952; Hoffman, 1960). This implies that women can

derive some power from performing household tasks and taking care of the children. However, these researchers seem to overlook the fact that women perform these tasks because they have no choice but to relinquish their autonomy to have access to the resources provided by the husband (Gillespie, 1971). Therefore, taking on more household task responsibilities cannot be regarded as an indication of power.

We have seen that resources affect the balance of decision-making, but do they have an impact on the division of labor as well? Specifically, is task performance determined by the resources that spouses bring and produce in marriage? In Blood and Wolfe's study (1960), husbands of working wives were more likely to participate in housework duties than husbands of unemployed wives. When the wife is not employed sex role segregation is clearly established. In their study Clark, Nye and Gecas (1978) found that "in 92 percent of the couples, the wives reported that they did most or all of the housekeeping" (p. 15). They also found that the husband's small contribution decreased with increasing income.

The direct negative effect of husband's income might reflect husband's greater resource power, gained by increased income and exercised by avoiding what they may consider to be relatively undesirable tasks. (Clark et al, 1978; p. 15)

Unlike the career woman (Scanzoni, 1980), the housewife does not expect her husband to participate heavily in domestic roles, especially not when he is a successful provider (Cuber & Harroff, 1965).

Compared to husbands of housewives, husbands of working wives contribute more in housework. Further, as the wife's relative income rises the husband's participation in domestic chores increases (Scanzoni, 1978). However, it should be noted that the wife's financial contribution affects the division of labor, when it significantly improves the family income. As stated by Ericksen, Yancey, and Ericksen (1981), highly successful husbands are likely to "let" their wife work if it does not lead to the burden of engaging in housework. They further claimed that the husband's participation in domestic chores can best be predicted from their income. In other words, husbands' participation is negatively related to income. Moreover, it is quite common that wives of successful men do not work outside the home. In this case, they have even less bargaining power and tend to assume most of the responsibility to manage household matters. In their study, Pahl and Pahl (1971) reported that wives of British managers got little help from their husbands. Therefore, the greater the earning differentials of husband over the wife, the less the husband contributes to housework (Model, 1981).

Although working wives get help around the house from their husbands, their contribution remains significantly greater (Nickols & Metzen, 1982; Pleck, 1977; Oakley, 1974; Yogev, 1981; Robinson, Yerby, Fieweger, & Somerick, 1977). This indicates that women's work does not necessarily lead to a redefinition of marital roles and a "fair" distribution of labor as expressed by Model (1981):

The sexual nature of the division of labor is not changing. Although women's labor force activity creates substantial overload, husbands are unlikely to relieve the strain. Under optimal conditions, we note the wife doing five times as much domestic work as her spouse and usually more. (p. 225)

On the basis of the resource theory what predictions can be made? Given the structure of society, men are granted higher status than are women by having access to better jobs, more education, and higher incomes. Therefore, they are likely to have more power. Nevertheless, we know that women who have access to socially valued resources (e.g., work) participate more in decision-making and get more help from their husbands than do housewives. Thus, it was hypothesized that spouses with equal resources would be assigned a more equal balance of decision-making and task performance than would spouses with unequal resources. This research also proposed to show that females more than males and Americans more than Algerians would be more egalitarian (as explained earlier).

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses concern male and female students' attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making and in task performance in Algeria and in the United States:

1. Overall, American students will hold more positive attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making and task performance than will Algerian students.

2. Regardless of cultures, females will have a more egalitarian attitude toward sharing decision-making and task performance than will males.

3. Algerian and American female students will hold more similar attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making and task performance than will male students. In other words, across cultures, the difference between males will be greater than will the difference between females.

4. Algerian and American male students will hold more positive attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making than toward equal sharing of task performance.

5. Overall, Algerian students' intentions to share decisions and task performance equally with their future spouses will be more influenced by subjective norms than by their attitudes. In contrast, American students' intentions will be more determined by their own attitudes than by subjective norms.

The following hypotheses concern the relationship between perceived resources, the balance of decision-making, and the division of task performance.

6. Overall, subjects will have more egalitarian judgments in situations where spouses are described as having equal resources than when they are described as having unequal resources.

7. Regardless of resource differentials, Americans and females will assign a more egalitarian balance of decision-making and division

of task performance to spouses described in the different scenarios than will Algerians and males respectively.

C H A P T E R I I

METHOD

Pilot study

The questionnaire was administered to 25 male and female undergraduate students in a classroom setting. The respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire and invited to make comments concerning its structure and content. Some of the comments were taken into consideration. From the original list of decisions, the one about the number and spacing of children was dropped because it was felt that, more than any other one, it was likely to be shared equally. Similarly, one item was dropped from the list of household tasks, namely house cleaning, as some respondents reported that they could not distinguish it from other domestic chores such as dish washing.

Another change involved assigning a new meaning to the scale used in part B of the questionnaire. In the pilot study, the respondents rated decisions and household tasks using a 7-point scale where 1 meant very much in favor and 7 meant very much opposed. The interpretation of these scores was not clear. For example, one could answer seven and mean that he/she favors total responsibility for making decisions and performing household task or favors letting the spouse take full responsibility. The new scale allows for

clarification (see questionnaire).

Recruitment

United States. Male and female respondents were recruited from the University of Massachusetts at Amherst through advertisement. A sign-up sheet with a brief description of the study was posted in the psychology department. The respondents were given a small amount of credit toward their grades, in various psychology courses in exchange for their participation.

Algeria. First, the investigator contacted several heads of departments in order to obtain their permission to conduct the study. They all asked to see the questionnaire before giving their approval. The next step in recruitment involved contacting the students. In order to reach as many students as possible, big notices signed by the University Officials, and providing a short description of the study were posted in such places as libraries, cafeterias, and bus stops. Several faculty members mentioned the study in class. Some of them agreed to let the investigator advertise the study at the beginning or end of their classes.

Respondent Characteristics

United States. A total of 192 students completed the questionnaire; 99 were females and 93 were males. The age of the respondents fell within the range of 16 to 33 years with an average of 20.46. Males were slightly older (mean = 20.77) than females

(mean = 20.21). Of the total sample, 168 students were in "soft sciences" (e.g., psychology) of whom 77 were males and 91 were females; and 24 were in "hard sciences" (e.g., physics) of whom 15 were males and 9 were females.

The distribution by year was as follows: 27% freshmen, 29% sophomores, 24% juniors, and 20% seniors. Over half of the students (60%) lived on campus.

Warner, Meeker, and Eell's (1960) job classification was used to rate the occupation of the respondents' parents. It consisted of a 7-point scale where 1 indicated high occupational status and 7 indicated low occupational status. More fathers (80%) than mothers (64%) were reported to hold jobs in the upper and moderate status category. Close to a third (29%) of the mothers were housewives. As for the educational level, at least 92% of the fathers and 82% of the mothers had graduated from high school, and over half of the mothers (61%) and fathers (73%) had some college education. More fathers (29%) were reported to have a graduate degree than mothers (15%).

Algeria. Data were collected on a total of 314 students with an equal number of males and females. The study was conducted in three major locations of the University of Algiers: the University of Sciences; the University of Social Sciences; and the Central Faculty which includes foreign languages, economics, and library science, among other majors. Because the different schools were not located in the same area, it was relatively easy to recruit an approximately

equal number of majors in the hard sciences, social sciences, and humanities. Of the total sample, 159 were in "hard sciences" (e.g., physics, chemistry) of whom 88 were males and 71 were females; and 145 were in "soft sciences" (e.g., sociology) of whom 64 were males and 81 were females. Ten students did not indicate their majors.

The classification of students by year was as follows: 42% freshmen, 19% sophomores, 15% juniors, and 24% seniors. The age of the respondents ranged from 17 to 32 years with an average of 22.04. As with the American sample, males were slightly older (mean = 22.82) than females (mean = 21.23).

The majority of students lived off-campus (73%), while the rest (27%) lived on campus. Although no data are available as to where off-campus students lived, it can be assumed that almost all still lived with their parents because of Algerian traditions.

Generally speaking, the respondents' fathers were reported to have a higher educational attainment than the respondents' mothers. Over half of the mothers (59.2%) never received any formal education compared to about a third of the fathers (30%). At least 34% of the mothers and 47% of the fathers had completed some elementary school education. A relatively small proportion of mothers (3.6%) and fathers (16.4%) graduated from college.

The job classification used in the American sample was also used in the Algerian sample. A large percentage of the respondents' mothers were housewives (85%). Close to 12% of the mothers held jobs

rated between 1 and 4, and only .6% had low status jobs. While 57% of the fathers had jobs in the upper and moderate status category, 21% had jobs rated between 5 and 7.

Procedure

United States. Students signed up to participate in the study when it was convenient for them to do so. A room in the psychology department was assigned for the completion of the questionnaire which took about 50 minutes. After the students had filled out the questionnaire, they were debriefed but were not allowed to keep the written feedback.

Algeria. No formal pilot study was done in Algeria; however, the author did a pretest to make sure that the respondents would be able to complete the questionnaire accurately. The author soon realized that the written explanations had to be supplemented with verbal explanations about how to use the 7-point scale.

In each of the three sites where the data were collected, a room was put at the disposal of the researcher. Students did not sign up but just walked in. While most of the students were informed of the study by posted signs, some of them were informed by students who had previously participated in the study. Most students completed the questionnaire in about an hour. Some students took up to three hours to fill it out. These students felt they needed more time to write extensive comments or simply think carefully about their responses.

In general, the students showed great interest and enthusiasm and

were eager to see the results of the study. Quite a few students made interesting comments with regard to the structure as well as the content of the questionnaire. Some of them said it was helpful because it made them think about the issue of marriage and equality.

It is important to note that, although Algerian students were interested in the topic of the study, in general they expressed a feeling of frustration with regard to the way the questionnaire was constructed. They felt that a number on the scale could not fully express their attitudes and opinions, which is one of the reasons some of them added written comments. Furthermore, they encountered some difficulties answering the questions related to subjective norms. First, they felt that the opinion of the different people who are important to them could not be expressed by a single score. Second, they sometimes did not know what some referents (e.g., brother) thought. In general, male students in the "hard sciences" showed more curiosity toward the study than the rest of the students. No written feedback was given to the respondents, but detailed explanations were provided verbally.

Materials

The English and French versions of the questionnaire can be found in Appendices A and B respectively. The questionnaire was first written in English and then translated into French by the investigator. Although no systematic bilateral translation was done, French native speakers and American professors of French assisted in

the final translation.

First, the respondents were asked to provide background information about themselves, namely, their age, sex, major, year of study, and whether or not they lived on campus. They were also asked to provide information concerning their parents' professions and educational levels. This information is not related to the hypotheses tested in the study but allows us to establish a general comparability of the Algerian and the American samples.

Section A of the questionnaire was used to test the hypotheses related to the resource theory. To do so, three conditions were used and four resources were manipulated, namely, family background, occupation, income, and education. The latter three resources were selected because they are easier to manipulate and more researched than personal characteristics (e.g., age, physical attractiveness). Family background, which was assumed to be related to socioeconomic status, was used for the same reason.

In each country, the sample was divided into three subsamples. Respondents in each subsample were presented with three scenarios describing different couples to provide some variation in the social class and occupation; in

Condition I the wife was described as having more resources than her husband; in

Condition II the husband was described as having more resources than his wife; and in

Condition III the husband and wife were described as having equal resources.

It is important to mention that the scenarios presented to the Algerian sample were slightly different from the ones presented to the American sample. Each was written to fit the social reality of the country. For example, the salary was described at a level appropriate to the standard of each country.

The distribution of respondents per condition was as follows. In Algeria, there were 49 females and 52 males in Condition I; 53 females and 47 males in Condition II; and 55 females and 58 males in Condition III. In the American sample there were 33 females and 32 males in Condition I; 33 females and 31 males in Condition II; and 33 females and 30 males in Condition III.

The respondents were asked to read the scenarios and indicate who should make each of the six decisions and have responsibility for each of the six household tasks. The decisions and the tasks were chosen because the investigator felt that they would fit in the Algerian as well as the American cultural contexts. Each item was rated on a 7-point scale (1 = husband only; 4 = husband and wife equally; 7 = wife only).

The decisions were as follows:

1. How much money to save
2. How much money to spend
3. How to deal with children

4. How much time to spend with in-laws
5. How much time to spend with friend
6. How to spend vacation and leisure time.

The household tasks were as follows:

1. Cooking
2. Dish washing
3. Food shopping
4. Laundry and ironing
5. Child care
6. Child entertainment.

In section B of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to think about their future marriage with regard to the decisions and household tasks used in section A. They rated each decision and household task on a 7-point scale (1 = alone; 4 = equally with my future spouse; and 7 = let my future spouse do it alone). In order to have the same interpretation of responses for both genders, the scale was recoded for female subjects so that scores smaller than four indicated the man's predominance, greater than four indicated the woman's predominance, and the score of four indicated equal sharing between the spouses. For each item the respondents were asked to indicate:

1. their own attitude
2. how most people who are important to them think they should make decisions and perform household tasks

3. the easiest way for them to make decisions and perform household tasks

4. how they intend to make decisions and perform household tasks.

In section C of the questionnaire, all the components of the theory of planned behavior were used. The respondents were asked to think about sharing with their future spouse: 1) important family decisions and 2) domestic chores. For both items the subjects were asked to provide the following information:

1. attitudes: the extent to which they were in favor (1) or against equality (7).

2. subjective norms and normative beliefs: whether they believed that most people who are important to them were in favor (1) or opposed (7) to equal sharing in their (respondents) future marriage. They were asked the same question about personal referents: mother, father, brother(s), sister(s), relatives, and close friends (normative beliefs).

3. motivation to comply: the extent to which they did (1) or did not want (7) to do what important people and personal referents wanted them to do.

4. perceived control: how easy (1) or difficult (7) equal sharing would be.

5. behavioral beliefs: Several possible outcomes of equal sharing were generated. The respondents assessed how likely (1) or unlikely (7) equal sharing would lead to each outcome. The following outcomes

were used for both decisions and domestic chores: misunderstanding, more satisfying and rewarding relationship, decrease of togetherness and conflicts, and relief from assuming entire responsibility. The next two outcomes have been used exclusively for decisions: poor communication and decrease of communication. Reduction of the time devoted to each other, and setting a bad example for children were added as potential outcomes of sharing domestic chores.

6. outcome evaluation: how good (1) or bad (7) each outcome would be.

7. intention: the extent to which they intended (1) or did not intend to (7) share equally each decision and task.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

This chapter consists of three major sections. In the first, findings bearing on the theory of planned behavior will be presented; in the second, findings bearing on the hypotheses concerning the resource theory will be examined; and in the third, findings not pertaining to the central hypotheses will be presented.

Before discussing the data, the major variables used in the study will be reviewed: attitudes, subjective norms, perceived control, and intention.

Attitudes. Three measures of attitudes were obtained. The first measure asked the respondents to describe their attitudes toward sharing equally each decision and each household task. The second asked the respondents to describe their attitudes toward sharing equally decisions and domestic chores in general (this measure will be referred to as global attitudes). The last, which is a composite score, is the "sum of the person's salient beliefs about an object's attributes (b) multiplied by his evaluations (e) of these attributes" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; p. 399). The following formula was used:

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \times e_i$$

Subjective norms. Two measures of subjective norms were used. The first measure asked the respondents to indicate how most people who are important to them believe they (respondents) should make

decisions and perform household tasks in their own future marriage. The second is the sum of the products of normative beliefs (b) and motivation to comply with personal referents (m): $SN = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \times m_i$.

Perceived control. This measure was obtained by asking the respondents to indicate what would be the easiest way for them to make decisions and perform household tasks.

Behavioral intention. Subjects were first asked to indicate their intentions to share each decision and household task equally. Then, they indicated their intentions to share important family decisions and domestic chores in general (global measures).

The second part of the questionnaire dealt with the effect of resources on the balance of decision-making and the distribution of household tasks. The major variable was the respondents' judgments with respect to sharing decisions and household tasks between members of couples as described in the different scenarios.

Attitudes

Hypothesis 1 stated: that, overall, American students hold more positive attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making and task performance than do Algerian students.

A series of t-tests was performed on respondents' attitudes, as shown in Table 1. First, Algerians' and Americans' global attitudes toward both equal sharing of important family decisions and domestic chores were compared. Ratings could range from 1 (very much in favor)

Table 1
Cultural Differences in Attitudes Toward Sharing
Family Decisions Household Tasks Equally

	Algeria (N=314)		United States (N=192)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	3.76	1.28	3.79	.64	NS
Spending money	3.74	1.11	3.91	.58	.05
Dealing with children	4.17	.91	4.07	.51	NS
Visiting in-laws	3.92	1.27	4.08	.65	NS
Visiting friends	3.42	1.34	4.05	.60	.001
Vacation/leisure time	3.71	1.01	3.96	.44	.001
Global attitude	2.34	1.52	1.22	.65	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	5.85	1.30	4.53	1.38	.001
Washing dishes	5.32	1.43	4.33	1.10	.001
Food shopping	3.41	1.48	4.63	1.28	.001
Laundry/ironing	5.97	1.24	4.79	1.22	.001
Child care	4.59	1.06	4.24	.65	.001
Child entertainment	3.71	.92	4.02	.58	.001
Global attitude	3.30	1.96	2.96	1.48	.001

Significance based upon t-tests comparing Algerians and Americans.
Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale. Scores smaller than 4 indicated the man's predominance; scores greater than 4 indicated the woman's predominance; and 4 indicated equality between spouses.

to 7 (very much opposed). Algerian students held less positive attitudes toward sharing decision-making and task performance than did American students ($p < .001$).

Second, t -tests were performed on the individual items. Respondents used a 7-point scale. Scores greater than 4 indicated the woman's predominance; scores smaller than 4 indicated the man's predominance; and the score of 4 indicated equal sharing between the respondent and his/her future spouse. The results on decisions will be presented first.

Decisions

In the Algerian sample, mean values ranged from 3.42 to 4.17 across the six items, and in the American sample they ranged from 3.79 to 4.08. The data revealed that the two samples differed significantly on decisions about spending money ($p < .05$), visiting friends ($p < .001$), and vacation and leisure time ($p < .001$). For each of these decisions, Algerians appeared to be less in favor of equality than did Americans.

Tasks

Generally speaking, respondents in both samples tended to use the side of the scale representing the women's predominance. In the Algerian sample the mean values ranged between 3.41 and 5.97, and in the American sample they ranged between 4.02 and 4.79. As indicated by the data, Algerian as compared to American students were less in

favor of sharing the following household tasks: cooking, washing dishes, laundry and ironing. However, students of both societies seemed to agree that these tasks were more the woman's responsibility. Moreover, they indicated that they were more in favor of sharing child care and child entertainment than any other task. It is interesting to report that, unlike Americans, Algerians preferred the man to have more responsibility for food shopping and child entertainment.

Hypothesis 2 stated that: Females have a more egalitarian attitude toward equal sharing of decision-making and task performance than do males.

T-tests were used to compare males and females on two measures of attitudes: first, global attitudes toward sharing equally important family decisions and domestic chores; and second attitudes toward sharing each decision and each task. The data are presented for Algeria and the United States separately.

Algeria

On the global measure of attitude toward sharing decisions, males and females differed significantly at the $p < .001$ level. The data revealed that, although both genders showed a tendency to endorse equality, women were found to hold a more positive attitude (mean = 1.72) than males (mean = 2.96). T-tests yielded similar findings for the different decisions. As shown in Table 2, males and females differed significantly at the $p < .001$ level on every item except for the one about in-laws. Males' scores were more deviant from the point of equality (the score of 4 on the scale), which

Table 2
Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward Sharing Family
Decisions and Household Tasks Equally -- Algeria

	Males (N=157)		Females (N=157)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	3.25	1.34	4.27	.97	.001
Spending money	3.30	1.14	4.17	.89	.001
Dealing with children	3.96	1.00	4.38	.75	.001
Visiting in-laws	3.80	1.30	4.04	1.24	NS
Visiting friends	2.93	1.38	3.90	1.10	.001
Vacation/leisure time	3.48	1.25	3.94	.60	.001
Global attitude	2.96	1.60	1.72	1.14	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	5.88	1.29	5.82	1.31	NS
Washing dishes	5.52	1.41	5.12	1.42	.05
Food shopping	3.38	1.56	3.44	1.40	NS
Laundry/ironing	6.12	1.10	5.82	1.36	.05
Child care	4.75	1.19	4.43	.98	.01
Child entertainment	3.64	.98	3.78	.85	NS
Global attitude	4.51	1.71	2.14	1.39	.001

Significance based on upon t-tests comparing Algerian males and females.

indicates that they were less favorable toward equality than females. Furthermore, males indicated that they preferred to have a greater say in most decisions. While they were inclined to share equally the decision about how to deal with children (mean = 3.96), they showed the greatest resistance to share the decision about visiting friends (mean = 2.93). Compared to men, women showed a greater preference for equal sharing. Nevertheless, they indicated that they preferred to participate more than their future husbands in decisions about money matters. They also felt that they should have a greater say in children's rearing.

The same analyses were performed on attitudes toward sharing tasks. On the global measure of attitudes women appeared to have a more egalitarian view than did men. Moreover, males exhibited a rather negative attitude toward equality (mean = 4.51). With regard to the individual tasks, two major conclusions may be drawn. First, women more than men preferred sharing washing dishes ($p < .05$), laundry and ironing ($p < .05$), and child care ($p < .01$). Although, no gender differences were identified for the rest of the tasks, one can notice the trend that men were less likely to favor equality. Second, both genders seemed to agree that food shopping and child entertainment were more the male's responsibility. They also agreed that the woman is to contribute more in the traditionally feminine roles such as cooking. Furthermore, males and females were least favorable toward sharing laundry and ironing.

United States

As shown in Table 3, t-tests demonstrated gender differences on the global attitudes toward sharing decisions ($p < .01$). As predicted, females were found to be relatively more egalitarian than were men. They also differed significantly at the $p < .01$ level or beyond on every decision except for the one about visits to in-laws. Women appeared more in favor of sharing the decisions about money to save, spend, and vacation and leisure time. However, they preferred to have a slightly greater contribution in decisions about money to spend (mean = 4.12), visits to in-laws (mean=4.17), and friends (mean = 4.20).

On the global measure of attitude, women appeared to be significantly less "traditional" (mean = 1.65) than men (mean = 2.78). This finding was confirmed for some of the household tasks, namely, washing the dishes, laundry, and ironing. Males and females, however, agreed that household tasks (except child entertainment) should be primarily performed by the woman.

Two-way analyses of variance confirmed the t-tests results (Table 4). In addition, significant interaction effects between sex and culture were found for the following decisions: spending money ($p < .01$), saving money ($p < .01$), and visits to friends ($p < .001$). As mentioned previously, in both countries males and females differed significantly on these decisions. Moreover, the interaction indicates that gender differences were larger in Algeria than they were in the United States.

Table 3
Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward Sharing Family
Decisions and Household Tasks Equally -- United States

	Males (N=93)		Females (N=99)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	3.63	.67	3.94	.57	.001
Spending money	3.68	.57	4.12	.52	.001
Dealing with children	3.94	.49	4.20	.49	.001
Visiting in-laws	3.98	.75	4.17	.53	NS
Visiting friends	3.90	.49	4.20	.67	.001
Vacation/leisure time	3.86	.54	4.03	.30	.01
Global attitude	1.36	.80	1.10	.46	.01
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	4.54	1.34	4.51	1.41	NS
Washing dishes	4.60	1.10	4.09	1.05	.001
Food shopping	4.51	1.23	4.73	1.21	NS
Laundry/ironing	5.05	1.21	4.54	1.27	.01
Child care	4.26	.70	4.21	.59	NS
Child entertainment	3.96	.59	4.07	.57	NS
Global attitude	2.78	1.62	1.65	1.08	.001

Significance based upon t-tests comparing American males and females.

Table 4
Gender Differences in Attitudes Toward Sharing Family
Decisions and Household Tasks Equally -- Overall Sample

	Males (N=250)		Females (N=256)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	3.39	1.15	4.14	.85	.001
Spending money	3.44	.99	4.15	.77	.001
Dealing with children	3.95	.85	4.13	.67	.001
Visiting in-laws	3.87	1.13	4.09	1.02	.05
Visiting friends	3.29	1.22	4.01	.97	.001
Vacation/leisure time	3.62	1.06	3.98	.51	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	5.38	1.46	5.32	1.49	NS
Washing dishes	5.18	1.37	4.72	1.38	.001
Food shopping	3.80	1.55	3.94	1.47	NS
Laundry/ironing	5.72	1.21	5.32	1.46	.001
Child care	4.57	1.01	4.35	.86	.01
Child entertainment	3.76	.87	3.89	.77	NS

Significance based upon two-way ANOVA (cultural main effects are presented elsewhere).

Hypothesis 3 stated that: Algerian and American female students hold more similar attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making and task performance than do male students.

A two-way analysis of variance was used to test this hypothesis. The independent variables were sex and culture, and the dependent variables were global attitudes toward sharing important family decisions and domestic chores. There were main effects for sex ($p < .01$) and culture ($p < .001$). Algerians and males appeared to be less egalitarian than Americans and females respectively. Furthermore, an interaction between sex and culture emerged ($p < .001$). Scheffe's (1959) multiple comparison test was used to test the significance of the two-way interactions. As predicted, the difference between the Algerian and United States females was significantly smaller than was the difference between males ($p < .001$). The mean differences between the two male groups and between the two female groups with respect to decisions were: 1.60 and .63. As for household tasks, the differences between the two male groups and between the two female groups were 1.73 and .49.

The same analyses were performed for individual decisions and tasks. An interaction between sex and culture was found for decisions about saving money ($p < .01$), spending money ($p < .001$) and visits to friends ($p < .001$). Scheffe's tests indicated that women from the two countries held more similar attitudes concerning these decisions than did males. The hypothesis did not receive support for household tasks.

This hypothesis received further support when the respondents rated couples. An interaction between sex and culture was found for the decisions about saving money, visiting friends and in-laws, and vacation and leisure time (see hypothesis 7 for sex and culture main effects). A Scheffe test indicated that the difference between females in the two cultures was significantly smaller than the difference between males for the decisions just mentioned, except for visiting in-laws.

Hypothesis 4 stated that: Algerian and American male students hold more positive attitudes toward equal sharing of decision-making than toward equal sharing of task performance.

To test this hypothesis, males' attitudes toward sharing tasks and decisions were compared using paired t-tests. The first analysis was performed on average deviation scores for decisions and tasks. In order to compute average deviation scores, the initial 7-point scale was recoded so that zero indicated equal sharing and the extremes (-3) meant absolute inequality. As indicated in Table 5, males reported to be less in favor of sharing household tasks (mean = -1.17) than sharing decisions (mean = -.64). The difference was statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level. Second, t-tests were performed on global attitudes which were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 meant very much in favor and 7 meant very much opposed. Again, males showed a greater preference for sharing decisions (mean = 2.39) than for sharing domestic chores (mean = 3.91). The same analyses were performed for women. Paired t-tests indicated that, although more

Table 5
 Comparisons of Attitudes Toward Sharing Family Decisions with
 Attitudes Toward Sharing Household Tasks

	Males (N=250)		Females (N=256)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Average deviation scores</u>					
Family decisions	-.64	.63	-.34	.44	.001
Household tasks	-1.17	.72	-.95	.82	
<u>Global attitudes</u>					
Family decisions	2.39	1.57	1.48	.98	.001
Household tasks	3.91	1.87	1.95	1.30	

Significance based upon paired t-tests comparing attitudes toward sharing decisions and household tasks. The significance reported is the same for males and females.

egalitarian than men, women also tended to value equal sharing of decisions more than sharing of tasks ($p < .001$).

Hypothesis 5 stated that: overall, Algerian students' intentions to share equally decisions and task performance with their future spouse are more influenced by subjective norms than by their attitudes. In contrast, American students' intentions are more determined by their own attitudes than by subjective norms.

To test this hypothesis, regression analyses were performed on two sets of variables. The first set of variables consisted of perceived control, intention and direct measures of attitudes, and subjective norms. The second set consisted of perceived control, intention, direct measures of subjective norms and attitudes, and derived measures of attitudes and subjective norms.

Before examining the data, it is important to clarify the concept of perceived control. In this research, it is based on the following assumptions. Traditionally, men have had more decision-making power than have women. Therefore, an equal sharing of decision-making implies a decrease in power for men. Hence, it is assumed that it would be easier for women to share decisions than it would for men. It is also assumed that it would be more difficult for men to share household responsibility, since it implies taking on some of the tasks traditionally performed by women. In summary, it would be easier for women to share decisions and domestic chores, because it implies an increase of decision-making power and a decrease of the household work load.

Predictions of Intentions from Direct Measures Only

The data were submitted to stepwise regression analyses in which the intentions to share decisions and tasks were the dependent variables, and attitude, perceived control and subjective norms were the predictors. Analyses were performed on summed scores and not on individual items. In other words, only overall intentions to share decisions and household tasks were predicted. Below, the results are presented for the Algerian respondents and the United States respondents separately.

Algeria. As shown in Table 6, for the overall sample (males and females), the intention to share decisions was primarily predicted from their own attitudes ($r^2 = .59$). The addition of perceived control increased the variance to .63, while subjective norms did not produce any increment in the explained variance. As for the intention to share tasks, perceived control accounted for most of the variance ($r^2 = .54$). Attitudes increased the variance to .62, and contrary to what was expected, subjective norms did not account for any of the explained variance.

Stepwise regression analyses were performed for males and females. As can be seen in Table 7, regardless of gender, the intention to share decisions was predicted essentially from personal attitudes and perceived control. Contrary to what was expected, subjective norms played a minor role, if any. Furthermore, it was not included in the regression equation in the male sample. With regard

Table 6

Summary of Regression Analyses:
 Prediction of the Intentions to Share Family Decisions
 and Household Tasks

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>Simple r</u>	<u>Multiple R</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Algeria</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.76	.76	.59	.58
Perceived control	.64	.79	.63	.25
Subjective norms	.45	.79	.63	.05
<u>household tasks</u>				
Perceived control	.74	.74	.54	.53
Attitudes	.60	.78	.62	.31
Subjective norms	.45	.79	.62	.09
<u>United States</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.50	.50	.25	.37
Perceived control	.47	.58	.34	.32
Subjective norms	.18	.58	.34	-.02
<u>Household Tasks</u>				
Attitudes	.63	.63	.40	.54
Subjective norms	.31	.66	.44	.19
Perceived control	.41	.67	.46	.12

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores

Table 7
 Summary of Regression Analyses:
 Prediction of the Intentions to Share Decisions
 and Household Tasks -- Algeria

<u>Predictor Variables</u>	<u>Simple r</u>	<u>Multiple R</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Males</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.79	.79	.63	.66
Perceived control	.63	.80	.65	.19
<u>Household Tasks</u>				
Perceived control	.71	.71	.50	.46
Attitudes	.62	.77	.59	.34
Subjective norms	.51	.77	.60	
<u>Females</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.56	.56	.32	.45
Perceived control	.46	.63	.40	.30
Subjective norms	.15	.64	.41	.09
<u>Household Tasks</u>				
Perceived control	.77	.77	.60	.60
Attitudes	.59	.81	.66	.28
Subjective norms	.40	.81	.66	.06

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores

to the prediction of the intention to share household tasks equally, perceived control appeared to be the major determinant for males ($r^2 = .50$) and females ($r^2 = .66$). It is also clear that for both genders personal attitude contributed significantly to the increase of explained variance: 9% for males and 6% for females. Subjective norms added only 1% to the total variance for males, and they did not produce any increment for females.

United States. As indicated in Table 6, for the overall sample (males and females) attitudes were entered as the first predictor of the intention to share decisions and produced a multiple R of .50 ($r^2 = .25$). Perceived control added 9% to the variance ($R = .58$; $r^2 = .34$). After the inclusion of subjective norms, the Multiple R remained the same. A Multiple R of .63 ($r^2 = .40$) was obtained when attitude was entered as the first predictor of the intention to share tasks. A slightly higher Multiple R was produced when subjective norms ($R = .66$; $r^2 = .44$) and perceived control ($R = .67$; $r = .46$) were added to the regression equation.

Separate regression analyses performed on both genders (Table 8) showed that males' intentions to share decisions were primarily determined by their attitudes ($R = .44$; $r^2 = .19$). While perceived control increased the variance to .23 ($R = .48$), subjective norms did not produce any additional variance. The intention to share tasks appeared to be more accurately predicted. Attitude, which was the first predictor entered in the regression equation, accounted for 54%

Table 8

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Family Decisions
and Household Tasks -- United States

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>Simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Males</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.44	.44	.19	.39
Perceived control	.31	.48	.23	.19
Subjective norms	.02	.48	.23	-.04
<u>Household Tasks</u>				
Attitudes	.73	.73	.54	.60
Perceived control	.56	.78	.61	.25
Subjective norms	.31	.79	.63	.14
<u>Females</u>				
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Perceived control	.37	.37	.13	.31
Attitudes	.33	.45	.20	.21
Subjective norms	-.01	.46	.21	
<u>Household Tasks</u>				
Attitudes	.57	.57	.33	.51
Subjective norms	.30	.60	.37	.19
Perceived control	.32	.60	.37	.04

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores

of the variance ($R = .73$). Perceived control added 7% to the variance accounted for in the regression ($R = .78$), and only 2% of additional variance was obtained when subjective norms were included ($R = .79$).

As can be seen in Table 8, women's intention to share decisions was primarily influenced by perceived control ($r^2 = .13$; $R = .37$). The explained variance was improved when attitude was entered ($r^2 = .20$; $R = .45$). Subjective norms did not contribute a great deal to the increase of the variance accounted for (1%). As for the intention to share tasks, attitudes produced a multiple R of .57 ($r^2 = .33$). Subjective norms slightly increased the variance ($R = .60$; $r^2 = .37$) which remained the same after the inclusion of perceived control.

Summary. Overall, both Algerians' and Americans' intentions to share decisions were strongly determined by their personal attitude and perceived control, but cultural differences emerged with respect to the prediction of the intention to share household tasks. As mentioned earlier, the intention to share domestic chores was primarily influenced by the perceived ease or difficulty to share household tasks in Algeria, while in the United States it was essentially determined by the extent to which one was in favor of or opposed to equal sharing. It is interesting to note that subjective norms were entered second and added 4% to the variance accounted for in the United States sample, while it was entered third and did not produce any increment in the Algerian sample. Thus, the hypothesis

that Algerians would be more influenced by social norms than by their personal attitudes was not supported.

Although not directly related to the hypothesis, the following findings are worth mentioning. Intentions to share decisions and household tasks were more completely predicted for the Algerian than for the American sample, and more so for United States males than for United States females. In Algeria, the intention to share decisions was better predicted for males but the intention to share tasks was more accurately predicted for females. Finally, the order of importance of the variables included in the prediction of the intention to share decisions was similar for males and females in Algeria but not in United States.

Predictions of Intentions from Direct and Derived Measures

Before examining the results of the regression analyses, the results of a series of t-tests will be reported to show to what extent Algerians compared to Americans, and males compared to females on the following variables: perceived control, intention, normative beliefs, motivation to comply with others, and behavioral beliefs.

Perceived control. Before presenting the data, the reader should recall that the respondents used a 7-point scale, where 1 indicated "very easy" and 7 indicated "very difficult". As shown in Table 9, Algerians found it more difficult to share decisions (mean = 3.22) and responsibility for domestic chores (mean = 3.85) than Americans (the respective means were 2.09 and 2.63). However, Algerians as well as

Table 9
Cultural and Gender Differences in Perceived Control and in Intentions
to Share Family Decisions and Household Tasks

	Overall Sample				Algeria				United States			
	Algeria		United States		Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Mean S D	Mean S D	P <		Mean S D	Mean S D	P <		Mean S D	Mean S D	P <	
Perceived Control												
Family decisions	3 22 1 50	2 09 1 22	.001		3 58 1 54	2 85 1 37	.001		2 13 1 25	2 05 1 20	NS	
Household tasks	3 25 1 76	2 63 1 55	.001		4 70 1 47	2 99 1 61	.001		3 02 1 68	2 26 1 32	.001	
Intentions												
Family decisions	2 45 1 61	1 34	.66	.001	3 16 1 69	1 78 1 14	.001		3 02 1 68	2 26 1 42	NS	
Household tasks	3 54 1 98	2 23 1 45	.001		4 59 1 69	2 49 1 66	.001		2 67 1 63	1 87 1 10	.001	

Significant differences based upon t-tests

Americans reported less difficulty sharing decisions than sharing tasks. T-tests also revealed that Algerian males scored significantly higher than Algerian females on both variables, which suggests that they expect to have more control over sharing decisions and tasks. No significant difference was found between United States males and females with regard to perceived control over sharing decisions, but, one can notice the trend that females expected to have less difficulty sharing. As for control over sharing tasks, males reported more difficulty sharing (mean = 3.07) than females (mean = 2.05).

Intention. As shown in Table 9, t-tests demonstrated cultural and gender differences ($p < .001$). On the scale used, 1 indicated "very" likely" and 7 indicated "very unlikely". Overall, Americans more than Algerians displayed a stronger intention to share decisions and domestic chores. Regardless of culture, females more than males showed a greater inclination toward sharing household tasks, but only in Algeria did females indicate a significantly greater likelihood to share decisions.

Normative beliefs. The scores displayed in Tables 10 to 12 should be interpreted as follows: in the new scale used (+3 to -3), a positive score meant that the respondents believed that personal referents preferred them to share decisions and tasks equally with their future spouses. Conversely, a negative score indicated that the respondents believed that they (personal referents) were opposed to equal sharing. With regard to important family decisions, Algerians

and Americans differed significantly on every normative belief item at the $p < .001$ level (Table 10). Generally speaking, American more than Algerian respondents believed that personal referents thought they should share decisions equally with their future spouse. United States students reported brothers and relatives to be the least in favor of equality; in contrast, the mother was perceived to value equality the most. In Algeria, sisters were reported to be the most in favor of equality, and relatives were reported to be opposed to it. Compared to subjects in other subgroups, Algerian males were the only ones to report that some referents were opposed to equal sharing, namely, important people (mean = $-.25$), the mother (mean = $-.31$), and "relatives" (mean = $-.77$).

In summary, although differences appeared between the two samples, some similarities emerged. First, regardless of culture, females perceived their personal referents to be more supportive of equality than did males. Second, regardless of culture, relatives were reported to be the least in favor of equality. Third, both genders reported that sisters were more inclined toward equality than were brothers. They also reported a similar higher inclination for mothers than for fathers.

As for domestic chores, Americans more than Algerians believed that their personal referents preferred them to share the responsibility for domestic chores. Moreover, Algerian respondents indicated that important people (mean = $-.78$), brothers (mean = $-.33$),

Table 10
Cultural Differences in Reported Beliefs of "Important Others"

	Algeria		United States		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Important people	.63	2.10	2.32	1.19	.001
Brother(s)	.64	2.04	1.52	1.64	.001
Sister(s)	1.62	1.83	2.36	1.26	.001
Mother	.30	2.25	2.37	1.22	.001
Father	.87	2.12	1.60	1.80	.001
Relatives	-.41	1.90	1.57	1.55	.001
Friends	1.34	1.89	2.10	1.28	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Important people	-.05	2.13	1.23	1.66	.001
Brother(s)	-.12	2.04	.42	1.83	.001
Sister(s)	1.18	1.95	1.73	1.50	.001
Father	-.42	2.08	.40	1.91	.001
Mother	.28	2.11	1.65	1.59	.001
Relatives	-1.11	1.70	.42	1.53	.001
Friends	.72	2.00	1.28	1.73	.001

Significance based upon t-tests comparing Algerians and Americans.

Note : Scores greater than zero indicated that the referents were in favor of equality and smaller than zero indicated that they were opposed to it.

father (mean = $-.90$), and relatives (mean = -1.32) were opposed to equal sharing.

T-tests performed on the Algerian data showed that men and women differed significantly on every item ($p < .05$ level or beyond) except for brothers (Table 11). In general, females more than males believed that personal referents thought they should share household tasks with their spouse. As for decisions, female referents were perceived to value equality more than were male referents. Fewer significant gender differences were found in the American sample (Table 12). American females more than American males reported that important people ($p < .001$) and friends ($p < .001$) thought they should share household tasks equally.

Motivation to comply with the wishes of important others.

T-tests demonstrated cultural differences (Table 13). Ratings from 1 to 7 were used: 1 indicated "very likely" and 7 indicated "very unlikely". As can be seen, Algerian and United States respondents differed significantly on every item at the $p < .001$ level except for the father ($p < .01$). Surprisingly, Algerians obtained lower scores, which suggests that they were less likely to comply with their personal referents. Regardless of culture, the respondents appeared to be least likely to comply with relatives. While the United States respondents showed the strongest motivation to comply with the mother, the Algerians appeared to do so for the father.

T-tests showed fewer significant gender differences in Algeria

Table 11
Gender Differences in Reported Beliefs of
"Important Others" -- Algeria

	Males		Females		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Important people	-.25	1.94	1.52	1.87	.001
Brother(s)	.26	2.08	1.04	1.95	.001
Sister(s)	1.03	2.05	2.23	1.37	.001
Mother	-.31	2.13	.91	2.91	.001
Father	.25	2.07	1.46	2.00	.001
Relatives	-.77	1.80	-.06	1.93	.001
Friends	.71	1.98	1.95	1.59	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Important people	-.78	1.87	.66	2.13	.001
Brother(s)	-.33	2.02	.07	2.04	NS
Sister(s)	.61	2.07	1.76	1.63	.001
Mother	-.90	1.91	.04	2.13	.001
Father	-.14	2.08	.69	2.06	.001
Relatives	-1.32	1.59	-.89	1.78	.05
Friends	.13	2.03	1.31	1.80	.001

Significant differences based on on t-tests.

Table 12
 Gender Differences in Reported Beliefs of
 "Important Others" -- United States

	Males		Females		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Important people	2.02	1.45	2.61	.08	.001
Brothers(s)	1.35	1.74	1.67	1.55	NS
Sister(s)	2.32	1.33	2.38	1.19	NS
Mother	2.16	1.37	2.54	1.04	.05
Father	1.10	1.97	2.08	1.49	.001
Relatives	1.37	1.63	1.76	1.46	NS
Friends	1.59	1.50	2.59	.78	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Important people	.90	1.70	1.54	1.57	.05
Brother(s)	.32	1.91	.51	1.76	NS
Sister(s)	1.78	1.47	1.68	1.55	NS
Mother	1.78	1.47	1.68	1.55	NS
Father	1.63	1.56	1.67	1.62	NS
Relatives	.52	1.43	.33	1.63	NS
friends	.47	1.77	2.05	1.29	.001

Significant differences based on t-tests.

Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale (-3 to +3). Scores greater than zero indicated that personal referents were in favor of equality and scores greater than zero indicated that they were opposed to it.

Table 13
Cultural Differences in Motivation to Comply with the Wishes
of "Important Others"

	Algeria		United States		P<
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Important people	4.43	2.19	3.72	1.68	.001
Brother(s)	4.84	2.03	3.90	1.77	.001
Sister(s)	4.57	2.01	3.83	1.71	.001
Mother	4.04	2.17	3.08	1.78	.001
Father	3.79	2.17	3.33	1.82	.01
Relatives	5.69	1.73	4.49	1.63	.001
Friends	4.75	2.06	3.52	1.52	.001

Significance based upon t-tests.

Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 meant very likely and 7 very unlikely.

Table 14
Gender Differences in Motivation to Comply with the Wishes
of "Important Others" -- Algeria.

	Males		Females		P<
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Important people	4.61	2.15	4.25	2.21	NS
Brother(s)	4.59	2.01	5.08	2.02	.05
sister(s)	4.69	1.90	4.45	2.16	NS
Mother	4.10	2.18	3.97	2.16	NS
Father	4.00	2.16	3.60	2.16	NS
Relatives	5.50	1.76	5.89	1.68	.05
Friends	4.85	2.06	4.65	2.06	NS

Significance based upon t-tests comparing Algerian males and females.
Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 meant very likely
and 7 very unlikely.

Table 15
 Gender Differences in Motivation to Comply with the Wishes
 of "Important Others" -- United States

	Males		Females		P<
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Important people	4.14	1.73	3.33	1.54	.001
Brother(s)	4.13	1.82	3.70	1.70	NS
Sister(s)	4.18	1.77	3.50	1.60	.05
Mother	3.50	1.97	2.69	1.48	.01
Father	3.58	1.92	3.09	1.68	NS
Relatives	4.71	1.56	4.20	1.68	.05
Friends	3.80	1.63	3.26	1.36	.01

Significance based upon t-tests comparing American males and females.
Note: Items were rated on a seven point scale where 1 indicated very likely and 7 indicated very unlikely.

(Table 14) than in the United States (Table 15). Algerian males and females differed significantly on motivation to comply with brothers ($p < .05$) and relatives ($p < .05$). On both items, males showed greater compliance than females. An examination of the United States data showed that males and females differed significantly on every item at the $p < .05$ level or better, except for motivation to comply with brothers and father. Generally speaking, American females appeared to be more compliant than American males.

Behavioral beliefs. Although the respondents tended to use the same side of the scale, t -tests demonstrated sex and cultural differences. The reader should recall that the items were rated on a 7-point scale, where 1 indicated "very likely" and 7 indicated "very unlikely". As can be seen in the questionnaire, some behavioral beliefs were worded in positive and others were worded in negative terms.

The overall American and Algerian samples differed significantly on every item at the $p < .05$ level or beyond, except for decrease in responsibility and in time to be spent between spouses (Table 16). Generally speaking, American respondents, more than Algerian respondents, felt that sharing decisions and domestic tasks would lead to a more satisfying relationship ($p < .001$) and conflict reduction ($p < .01$). Also, Americans more than Algerians believed that sharing decisions and domestic chores would be unlikely to cause misunderstanding ($p < .001$), and decrease togetherness ($p < .001$) and

Table 16
Cultural Differences in Expected Outcomes of Sharing
Family Decisions and Domestic Chores Equally

	Algeria		United States		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Misunderstanding	5.26	2.02	6.05	1.30	.001
Rewarding relationship	2.09	1.56	1.31	.69	.001
Togetherness decrease	5.90	1.60	6.62	.94	.001
Conflict reduction	3.15	1.97	2.70	1.66	.01
Decrease in responsibility	2.55	1.63	2.33	1.59	NS
Poor decisions	5.80	1.67	6.40	1.17	.001
Decrease in communication	6.01	1.48	6.59	1.12	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Misunderstanding	4.84	2.27	5.83	1.49	.001
Rewarding relationship	2.63	2.04	1.97	1.42	.001
Togetherness decrease	5.62	1.78	6.29	1.05	.001
Conflict reduction	3.31	2.08	2.98	1.60	.05
Decrease in responsibility	2.43	1.59	2.51	1.82	NS
Time reduction	5.62	1.56	5.82	1.44	NS
Poor example for children	5.93	1.77	6.77	.70	.001

Significance based upon t-tests comparing Algerians and Americans.
Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 meant very likely and 7 very unlikely.

communication ($p < .001$). Finally, sharing domestic chores was considered more unlikely to be a poor example for children by Americans than by Algerians.

Separate t -tests were performed on the Algerian (Table 17) and the American sample (Table 18) to show to what extent males and females differed within culture. As can be seen, more significant gender differences were found in Algeria than in the United States. However, in both countries women appeared to be more extreme regarding the outcomes of sharing decisions and domestic chores than did men.

Outcome evaluation. Although Americans and Algerians used the same end of the scale, they differed significantly on every item at the $p < .01$ level on beyond, except for decrease in togetherness and communication (see Table 19). As indicated by the data, Americans were more extreme in their evaluations, whether positive or negative. Few significant gender differences were found in Algeria and in the United States. In comparison to males, Algerian females evaluated misunderstanding more negatively. Regardless of culture, females evaluated decrease in responsibility more positively than did men. But only in the United States, did females evaluate time reduction between spouses more negatively than did men.

In short, in spite of some differences and regardless of culture and gender, respondents evaluated misunderstanding, decrease in togetherness and communication, time devoted to each other, and poor example for children negatively; but they evaluated the following

Table 17
Gender Differences in Expected Outcomes of Sharing
Family Decisions and Household Tasks -- Algeria

	Males		Females		P<
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
<u>Family Decision</u>					
Misunderstanding	4.92	2.18	5.60	1.79	.01
Rewarding relationship	2.45	1.72	1.72	1.34	.001
Decrease in togetherness	5.67	1.75	6.13	1.41	.05
Conflict reduction	3.32	1.99	2.98	1.94	NS
Decrease in responsibility	2.64	1.46	2.46	1.78	NS
Poor decisions	5.37	1.87	6.23	1.31	.001
Decrease in communication	5.77	1.56	6.30	1.34	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Misunderstanding	4.79	2.27	4.90	2.29	NS
Rewarding relationship	2.44	2.09	2.32	1.95	.05
Decrease in togetherness	5.46	1.77	5.78	1.77	NS
Conflict reduction	3.48	2.03	3.15	2.12	NS
Decrease in responsibility	2.60	1.45	2.26	1.70	NS
Reduction in time	5.52	1.44	5.73	1.67	NS
Poor example for children	5.61	1.87	6.25	1.60	.001

Significant differences based upon t-tests.

Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 indicated very likely and 7 very likely.

Table 18
Gender Differences in Expected Outcomes of Sharing
Family Decisions and Household Tasks Equally -- United States

	Males		Females		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Misunderstanding	6.01	1.40	6.10	1.26	NS
Rewarding relationship	1.32	.67	1.30	.70	NS
Decrease in togetherness	6.61	1.03	6.63	.85	NS
Conflict reduction	2.73	1.82	2.67	1.51	NS
Decrease in responsibility	2.55	1.63	2.12	1.54	NS
Poor decisions	6.32	1.19	6.45	1.04	NS
Decrease in Communication	6.66	1.01	6.52	1.21	NS
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Misunderstanding	5.96	1.41	5.79	1.56	NS
Rewarding relationship	1.95	1.39	1.98	1.44	NS
Decrease in togetherness	6.30	1.10	6.27	1.01	NS
Conflict reduction	2.88	1.65	3.08	1.55	NS
Decrease in responsibility	3.26	1.91	1.82	1.41	.001
Reduction in time	5.86	1.36	5.77	1.52	NS
Poor example for children	6.75	.60	6.79	.70	NS

Significant differences based upon t-tests.

Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 indicated very likely and 7 very unlikely.

Table 19
Cultural Differences in the Evaluation of Expected
Outcomes of Sharing Equally Family Decisions
and Household Tasks Equally

	Algeria		United States		P<
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Misunderstanging	5.25	1.84	4.88	1.30	.01
Rewarding relationship	1.41	.86	1.03	.20	.001
Decrease in togetherness	6.23	1.23	6.41	1.07	NS
Conflict reduction	2.35	1.79	1.72	1.23	.001
Decrease in responsibility	3.09	2.09	2.43	1.53	.001
Poor decisions	6.31	1.09	6.25	1.13	NS
Decrease in communication	6.35	1.24	6.68	.97	NS
Reduction in time	5.58	1.30	6.20	1.05	.001
Poor example for children	6.53	.85	6.77	.67	.001

Significant differences based on t-tests.

Note: Items were rated on a 7-point scale where 1 indicated very good and 7 very bad.

outcomes positively: rewarding relationship, reduction of conflict and reduction of responsibility.

The next section will focus on the prediction of the intentions to share important family decisions and the responsibility for domestic chores. Regression analyses with hierarchical inclusion were used. According to the theory of planned behavior, direct measures of attitude, perceived control, and subjective norms are the major determinants of intention. Therefore, they were entered in the first step. Derived measures of attitude and subjective norms were entered in the second step. Findings will be presented for the overall, Algerian, and United States samples.

Overall sample. As predicted by the theory, the direct measures of attitude, perceived control, and subjective norm were the major predictors of the intention to share decisions as they accounted for 62% of the variance. The derived measures added little to the variance accounted for since they increased it only from .62 to .64. The same pattern of prediction was found with regard to domestic chores. However, the prediction of the dependent variable was slightly better ($r^2 = .68$).

Algeria. The results of the regression analyses are displayed in Table 20. The intention to share decisions was primarily determined by the predictors entered in the first step; attitude appeared to be the major determinant ($R = .71$; $r^2 = .50$). Little variance was accounted for by the derived measures, as they increased the variance

Table 20

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- Algeria

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes	.71	.71	.50	.42
Perceived control	.55	.74	.56	.19
Subjective norms 1	.53	.77	.59	.16
Attitudes 2	.52	.78	.61	.16
Subjective norms 2	.48	.78	.62	.07
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Attitudes 1	.75	.75	.57	.44
Perceived control	.72	.80	.64	.29
Subjective norms 1	.44	.81	.66	.11
Attitudes 2	.47	.82	.67	.11
Subjective norms 2	.39	.82	.67	.03

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

from .59 to .62. With respect to the prediction of the intention to share domestic tasks, attitude had the largest contribution (57% of the variance). While perceived control increased the variance to .64, subjective norms and the predictors entered in the second step contributed little additional variance (2% and 3% respectively).

Separate regression analyses were performed for males and females. As shown in Table 21, females' intentions to share decisions were primarily determined by personal attitudes ($r^2 = .32$). Subjective norms were the second predictor entered in the regression equation and increased the variance to .37. Perceived control added only 1% to the variance accounted for. The derived measures of attitudes and subjective norms, which were entered in the second step, increased the variance from .38 to .47. Perceived control appeared to be the major predictor ($r^2 = .21$) of the intention to share domestic tasks. The direct measure of attitude, which was the second predictor, contributed 8% of additional variance. Subjective norms did not contribute a great deal to the increase of the variance (4%). Later predictors increased the variance from .33 to .40.

The results of the regression analyses for males are presented in Table 22. As can be seen, the intention to share decisions was essentially determined by the predictors entered in the first step: attitude ($r^2 = .47$); perceived control ($r^2 = .58$); and subjective norms ($r^2 = .60$). Later predictors contributed little information (2%). Similarly, for the prediction of the intention to share

Table 21

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- Algerian Females

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>Simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance Accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decision</u>				
Attitudes 1	.56	.56	.32	.43
Subjective norms 1	.38	.61	.37	.21
Perceived control	.26	.62	.38	.08
Attitudes 2	.45	.68	.46	.29
Subjective norms 2	.22	.68	.47	-.08
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Perceived control	.46	.46	.21	.19
Attitudes 1	.43	.54	.29	.24
Subjective norms 1	.31	.57	.33	.13
Attitudes 2	.44	.61	.38	.21
Subjective norms 2	.40	.63	.40	.15

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

Table 22

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- Algerian Males

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance Accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes 1	.68	.68	.47	.38
Perceived control	.65	.76	.58	.31
Subjective norms 1	.46	.77	.60	.09
Subjective norms 2	.51	.79	.62	.17
Attitudes 2	.49	.79	.62	.04
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Attitudes	.82	.82	.67	.47
Perceived control	.80	.86	.74	.40
Subjective norms 1	.33	.86	.74	.05
Attitudes 2	.43	.86	.74	.06
Subjective norms 2	.27	.86	.74	-.04

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

domestic chores the variables entered in the first step accounted for most of the variance ($r^2 = .74$). Attitude was the first variable entered in the regression equation ($r^2 = .67$); perceived control as the second predictor, accounted for 7% of additional variance. After the inclusion of the other variables, the multiple R remained the same.

United States. As in the overall Algerian sample, the variables entered in the first step accounted for most of the variance for the prediction of the intention to share decisions ($r^2 = .35$) and for the prediction of the intention to share household tasks ($r^2 = .60$). Similarly, the order of variables entered within this step was the same (Table 23). The derived measures entered in the second step added 2% to the explained variance.

The results for males and females are displayed in Tables 24 and 25. Attitude was the major predictor of the intention to share decisions for males ($R = .43$, $r^2 = .19$). Perceived control increased the variance from .19 to .32. Later predictors added only 4% to the explained variance. As for the prediction of the intention to share domestic chores, attitude produced a multiple R of .72 ($r = .52$). Perceived control improved the variance substantially (13%), while subjective norms added only 2%. Variables entered in the second step did not improve the variance.

Regression analyses performed on females yielded similar results concerning the order of predictors of the intention to share

Table 23

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- United States

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes 1	.50	.50	.25	.39
Perceived control	.42	.59	.34	.28
Subjective norms 1	.22	.59	.35	.08
Attitudes 2	.31	.61	.37	.13
Subjective norms 2	.15	.61	.37	-.03
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Attitudes 1	.69	.69	.48	.46
Perceived control	.66	.77	.59	.40
Subjective norms 1	.15	.77	.60	-.16
Attitudes 2	.31	.78	.62	.11
Subjective norms 2	.29	.78	.62	.05

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

Table 24

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- American Males

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>simple r</u>	<u>Multiple r</u>	<u>Variance Accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes 1	.43	.43	.19	.31
Perceived control	.43	.56	.32	.32
Subjective norms 1	.26	.58	.33	.11
Attitudes 2	.37	.59	.35	.17
Subjective norms 2	.15	.60	.36	-.05
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Attitudes 1	.72	.72	.52	.55
Perceived control	.69	.80	.65	.40
Subjective norms 1	.15	.81	.67	-.17
Subjective norms 2	.24	.82	.67	.06
Attitudes 2	.22	.82	.67	.01

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

Table 25

Summary of Regression Analyses:

Prediction of the Intentions to Share Important Family Decisions
and Domestic Chores -- American Females

<u>Predictor variables</u>	<u>simple r</u>	<u>Multiplr r</u>	<u>Variance accounted for</u>	<u>B</u>
<u>Family Decisions</u>				
Attitudes 1	.62	.62	.38	.53
Perceived control	.39	.65	.42	.18
Subjective norms 1	.08	.65	.42	.04
Attitudes 2	.25	.65	.43	.10
Subjective norms 2	.07	.65	.43	-.02
<u>Domestic Chores</u>				
Perceived control	.56	.56	.31	.40
Attitudes 1	.53	.63	.39	.24
Subjective norms	.01	.64	.41	-.23
Attitudes 2	.42	.70	.49	.28
Subjective norms 2	.24	.70	.49	.10

Note: 1 refers to direct measures and 2 refers to derived measures.

decisions; however, a more complete prediction was obtained for females than for males. As for the prediction of the intention to share domestic chores, perceived control accounted for most of the variance ($R = .56$, $r^2 = .31$) followed by attitude ($R = .63$, $r^2 = .39$). Both measures of subjective norms contributed little, if any, to the total amount of variance.

Summary. As stated previously, Americans' and Algerians' intentions were mainly predicted from personal attitudes. Thus, Algerians were not more strongly influenced by the social environment than were Americans. However, an examination of the data shows that the direct measure of subjective norms was assigned a greater weight in the Algerian sample than in the United States sample. In addition, subjective norms produced some increment in the accounted for variance in the Algerian overall sample but not in the United States overall sample. By the same token, intentions were more highly correlated with subjective norms in the Algerian sample than in the American sample.

In addition to the finding related to the major hypothesis, some conclusions may be drawn. For the overall sample (Algeria and United States) and the different subgroups, the direct measures of attitude, subjective norms and perceived control were the major determinants of both intentions. Little variance was gained from the derived measures of attitudes and subjective norms. For most subgroups, except for Algerian females, the intention to share domestic chores was more

accurately predicted than the intention to share decisions. Moreover, the data showed that males' and Algerians' intentions were better predicted than females' and Americans' respectively.

Regardless of gender and culture, the intention to share decisions were primarily determined by personal attitudes. Sex differences emerged with respect to the prediction of intention to share domestic tasks. In contrast to males' intention, which appeared to be essentially based on attitudes, females' intentions seemed to be more strongly affected by perceived control.

Resources

This section will focus on findings pertaining to hypotheses concerning the relationship between resources, the balance of decision-making, and the division of task performance.

Hypothesis 6 stated that: subjects have more egalitarian attitudes in situations where spouses are described as having equal resources than in situations where spouses are described as having unequal resources.

To test this hypothesis, one-way analyses of variance with contrast were performed on the overall, the Algerian, and United States samples. Ratings of scenarios describing spouses with equal resources were compared with scenarios describing spouses with unequal resources. It is important to mention that the analyses were not performed on the individual items but rather on summed scores. Ratings of individual decisions were added to form a total score for

decisions. A total score for task performance was obtained in the same fashion. No statistical significance was found in the overall, Algerian and American samples. This suggests that the respondents' ratings of the distribution of decision-making and division of labor were not significantly affected by spouses' resources.

Three-way analyses of variance were performed to examine the relationship of resources with sex and culture in the production of the respondents judgments' of the scenario couples (sex and culture main effects will be reported in the context of the next hypothesis). Resource main effects were based on summed scores across the three scenarios (Table 26). Thus, for each item ratings could range from 3 to 21 and are to be interpreted as follows: scores less than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance and the score of 12 indicated equal sharing between the spouses.

Overall sample

Resources had a significant main effect on the amount of money to save ($p < .01$) and to spend ($p < .05$). The wife who was described as having more resources was ascribed more responsibility for making the decisions about how much money to save (mean = 12.25) than the wife who had equal (mean = 11.48) or less resources (mean = 11.69) than her husband. Similarly, the respondents reported that the husband who had more resources than his wife should contribute more in making such a decision than the husband who had less or equal resources. Relatively

Table 26
Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task Performance as a Function of
Resources -- Overall Sample

	Wife>Husband (N=166)		Husband=Wife (N=176)		Husband>Wife (N=164)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>							
Saving money	12.25	2.54	11.68	2.02	11.48	2.34	.01
Spending money	12.02	2.57	11.81	1.95	11.40	2.35	.01
Dealing with children	12.56	1.78	12.16	1.60	12.73	1.79	NS
Visiting in-laws	11.98	1.98	12.17	2.03	12.22	2.14	NS
Visiting Friends	11.34	2.17	11.13	1.23	11.14	2.26	NS
Vacation/leisure time	11.47	1.84	11.35	1.63	11.35	1.82	NS
<u>Household Tasks</u>							
Cooking	15.96	3.30	15.68	3.18	15.98	2.98	NS
Washing dishes	14.73	3.44	14.77	3.13	14.75	3.47	NS
Food Shopping	11.24	3.42	11.43	2.98	12.18	3.26	.01
Laundry/ironing	16.04	3.34	16.16	3.12	16.14	3.04	NS
Child care	13.51	2.38	13.89	2.20	13.79	2.34	NS
Child Entertainment	11.50	2.02	11.74	1.68	11.51	1.72	NS

Significance based on three-way ANOVA (culture and gender main effects are presented elsewhere).

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance; and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

similar findings were obtained for the decision about the amount of money to spend. The respondents allocated more responsibility to the spouse possessing more resources.

As for domestic chores, resources exhibited a significant effect only on food shopping ($p < .01$). The respondents reported that the wife with more resources should participate less in food shopping (mean = 11.24) than her husband or the wife in the other two conditions. They also indicated that the husband with more resources should contribute less than his wife in performing such a task (mean = 12.28). In other words, regardless of gender, the spouse who had more resources was assigned less responsibility for food shopping. When the spouses were described as having equal resources, the respondents ascribed relatively more responsibility to the husband.

Women's and men's responses by condition (resources) are displayed in Table 27. A significant interaction effect between sex and resources emerged for dish washing ($p < .05$). Scheffe's multiple comparisons test was used to test the interaction effect. The difference between males and females across the three conditions was not statistically significant. However, it is interesting to note that the greatest difference between males and females emerged in scenarios where the wife was described as having more resources. Males attributed the largest amount of responsibility to the wife, while females attributed the smallest amount.

To conclude, the data just presented did not provide evidence

Table 27
 Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making and Household Task Performance
 as a Function of Spouses' Relative Resources and Gender -- Overall Sample

	Wife > Husband (N=166)		Wife = Husband (N=176)		Husband > Wife (N=164)							
	Males (N=84)	Females (N=82)	Males (N=88)	Females (N=88)	Males (N=78)	Females (N=86)						
	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.						
Family Decisions												
Saving money	11.85	2.83	12.65	2.14	11.35	2.50	12.04	1.32	11.24	2.58	11.69	2.08
Spending money	11.52	2.90	12.53	2.07	11.30	2.25	12.32	1.45	11.11	2.51	11.66	2.18
Dealing with children	12.48	2.19	12.64	1.22	12.54	1.45	12.58	1.76	12.98	1.76	12.86	1.63
Visiting in-laws	11.79	2.21	12.18	1.71	11.85	2.46	12.48	2.07	12.08	2.22	12.34	1.44
Visiting friends	10.66	2.34	12.04	1.72	10.44	1.72	11.82	1.46	10.21	2.51	11.98	1.61
Vacation/leisure time	11.09	2.24	11.86	1.20	10.85	2.10	11.85	.65	11.00	2.20	11.65	1.33
Household Tasks												
Cooking	16.30	3.47	15.06	3.02	16.10	2.85	15.26	2.81	15.94	3.15	16.01	3.23
Washing dishes	15.91	3.44	13.52	3.13	15.11	3.47	14.44	3.72	15.35	3.73	14.20	3.08
Food shopping	10.95	3.84	11.53	2.93	11.03	3.08	11.84	2.84	12.64	3.31	11.95	3.20
Laundry/ironing	16.78	3.22	15.29	3.32	16.68	3.04	15.68	2.96	16.15	3.10	16.13	3.16
Child care	13.94	2.63	13.45	2.01	14.12	2.46	13.65	2.20	14.00	2.26	13.60	2.14
Child entertain ment	11.33	2.77	11.67	1.70	11.46	2.07	12.02	1.22	11.73	1.50	11.32	1.81

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance; and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

that the respondents held more positive attitude toward equality in situations where the spouses had the same resources; instead they assigned relatively more responsibility to the husband. They, however, exhibited such an attitude (egalitarian) when the wife had more resources than her husband with regard to decisions about saving and spending money. With regard to food shopping, the same inclination was expressed when the husband had more resources.

Because no significant interaction was found between resources and culture, separate ANOVAs were performed on the Algerian and American samples in an attempt to identify any cultural differences with regard to the impact of resources on the balance of decision-making and task performance. The independent variables were sex and resources. The results pertaining to the United States sample are presented first.

United States

As indicated in Table 28, resources had a main effect on money related decisions, namely, the amount of money to save ($p < .001$), spend ($p < .001$), and vacation and leisure time ($p < .01$). More responsibility to make such decisions was ascribed to spouses described as having more resources than their partners regardless of their sex. However, in comparison to the husband with more resources, the wife with more resources was attributed relatively more responsibility. Furthermore, the respondents indicated that when the husband had more resources, spouses should make a relatively equal contribution in making

Table 28
Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task Performance as a Function of
Resources -- United States

	Wife>Husband (N=65)		Husband=Wife (N=63)		Husband>Wife (N=64)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>							
Saving money	12.85	1.43	11.87	.60	11.56	1.25	.001
Spending money	12.83	1.31	11.97	.62	11.62	.96	.001
Dealing with children	12.26	.95	12.52	1.10	12.50	.92	NS
Visiting in-laws	12.13	.58	12.14	1.17	12.26	1.11	NS
Visiting friends	11.96	.43	12.07	.74	11.92	.76	NS
Vacation/leisure time	12.13	.58	11.77	1.13	11.77	.68	.01
<u>Household Tasks</u>							
Cooking	13.84	2.84	13.80	2.43	13.64	2.37	NS
Washing dishes	12.90	2.24	12.95	1.95	12.81	2.30	NS
Food shopping	12.37	2.23	13.14	2.29	13.68	2.67	NS
Laundry/ironing	13.79	2.64	14.10	2.45	14.21	2.45	NS
Child care	12.30	1.46	12.88	1.34	12.90	1.50	.05
Child entertain- ment	11.96	1.69	12.04	.99	12.10	.89	NS

Significance based on Two-way ANOVA (gender main effects are presented elsewhere).

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance; and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

decisions about the amount of money to save (mean = 11.56) and to spend (mean = 11.62). The opposite seems to be true with respect to the decision about leisure time and vacation. The respondents assigned more responsibility to the husband (mean = 11.77) than to the wife (mean = 12.13) when they were both described as having more resources than their partners. Although no significance was reached ($p < .058$), it is worth mentioning the interaction between sex and resources with regard to the decision about vacation and leisure time (see Table 29 for responses by gender and resources). Regardless of resources, women held more egalitarian attitudes than men who appeared to base their judgments on the comparative resources provided by spouses. Male respondents indicated that more responsibility should be granted to the spouse to make such a decision when he/she had more resources. Furthermore, males' and females' ratings differed most when they rated couples where the wife had less resources than her husband.

Only one main effect concerning domestic chores was found, namely, child care ($p < .05$). Regardless of resources, the respondents reported that the wife should contribute more than the husband in child care. However, the wife with more resources (mean = 12.30) was attributed relatively less responsibility than the wife with equal (mean = 12.88) or less resources (mean = 12.90) than her husband. The hypothesis that the respondents would have more egalitarian attitudes when the spouses had the same resources did not receive total support,

Table 32
 Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making and Household Task Performance
 as a Function of Spouses' Relative Resources and Gender -- Algeria

	Wife > Husband (N=101)				Wife = Husband (N=113)				Husband > Wife (N=100)				
	Males (N=52)		Females (N=49)		Males (N=58)		Females (N=55)		Males (N=47)		Females (N=53)		
	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	Mean S D	
<u>Family Decisions</u>													
Saving money	11.23	3.23	12.55	2.58	11.13	3.00	12.09	1.66	11.17	3.09	11.66	2.57	NS
Spending money	10.67	2.90	12.38	2.43	11.00	2.66	12.50	1.79	10.87	3.11	11.60	2.70	NS
Dealing with children	12.76	2.70	12.75	1.22	12.55	2.42	13.27	1.55	12.76	2.18	12.98	1.63	NS
Visiting in-laws	11.51	2.71	12.28	1.71	11.77	2.86	12.61	1.68	11.89	2.61	12.47	2.59	NS
Visiting friends	9.92	2.23	12.04	1.72	9.65	3.09	11.61	1.31	9.17	2.69	11.96	1.99	001
Vacation/leisure time	10.40	2.56	11.73	1.52	10.51	2.68	11.76	.81	10.61	2.26	11.47	1.67	NS
<u>Household Tasks</u>													
Cooking	17.51	3.30	16.20	3.05	17.06	2.46	16.38	2.55	17.40	2.45	17.54	2.93	NS
Washing dishes	17.28	2.13	14.40	3.46	16.22	3.50	15.34	2.81	16.82	2.51	15.26	4.08	05
Food shopping	9.25	3.51	10.67	3.17	10.63	2.97	10.90	2.81	11.61	3.20	10.96	3.24	NS
Laundry/ironing	18.13	2.58	16.83	3.12	17.74	2.73	15.92	2.63	17.38	2.65	17.37	3.11	NS
Child care	14.90	2.65	13.63	2.26	14.72	2.70	14.18	2.44	14.59	2.42	14.16	2.35	NS
Child entertain-ment	10.96	2.27	11.46	2.02	11.22	2.38	11.94	1.43	11.44	1.67	10.86	2.13	NS

Significance based upon t-tests comparing Algerian males and females.
 Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance, scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance, and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

as they held such an attitude only when the wife had more resources.

As can be seen in Table 30, there were significant main effects for sex ($p < .01$). Women were significantly more in favor of sharing the decisions about visiting friends, and spending vacation and leisure time. Likewise, females indicated a stronger inclination toward sharing household tasks, namely, washing dishes ($p < .01$), and laundry and ironing ($p < .01$).

Separate ANOVAs were performed on males and females because no significant interaction between sex and resources appeared. The data showed the same pattern of responses for males and females as for the overall sample with regard to decisions about the amount of money to save and to spend. As hypothesized, the subjects exhibited a stronger inclination toward equality when the spouses had the same resources. They also indicated that more responsibility should be assumed by the spouse who has more resources, regardless of gender. In comparison to women, men appeared to attribute relatively more responsibility to the spouse holding more resources. One additional main effect was found for males. Unlike women, men took into consideration the relative resources provided by the described couples when rating the decision about vacation and leisure time ($p < .05$). Males felt that spouses with more resources should make a greater contribution, regardless of their gender. Moreover, for couples who had equal resources, they indicated that the husband should have relatively more responsibility than the wife (mean = 11.50).

Table 30
Gender Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task Performance -- United States

	Males (N=93)		Females (N=99)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	12.01	1.52	12.18	.99	NS
Spending money	12.10	1.21	12.18	1.05	NS
Dealing with children	12.29	.87	12.55	1.09	NS
Visiting in-laws	12.21	1.24	12.15	.66	NS
Visiting friends	11.88	.76	12.09	.53	.01
Vacation/leisure time	11.77	1.18	12.00	.24	.01
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	14.10	2.74	13.43	2.02	NS
Washing dishes	13.26	2.27	12.53	1.99	.01
Food shopping	13.60	2.61	13.25	2.20	NS
Laundry/ironing	14.50	2.77	13.58	2.16	.01
Child care	12.80	1.58	12.57	1.32	NS
Child entertainment	12.01	1.57	12.06	.83	NS

Significant differences between American males and females based upon two-way ANOVA (resource main effects are presented elsewhere).

In summary, the hypothesis that subjects would hold more egalitarian attitudes in situations where spouses were described as having equal resources was confirmed for decisions about the amount of money to save (mean = 11.87) and spend (mean = 11.97). However, with respect to the decisions about leisure time and vacation, the respondents showed such an inclination only when the wife had more resources than her husband (mean = 12.13).

Algeria

As shown in Table 31, resources yielded a significant main effect only on food shopping ($p < .05$). Generally speaking, the respondents reported that the husband should participate more in this activity than the wife. However, their responses differed as a function of the comparative resources provided by spouses. The wife was expected to contribute the least when she had more resources (mean = 9.94) and the most when she had less resources (mean = 11.27). The respondents showed the strongest inclination toward equality when the wife had less resources.

An interaction between sex and condition was found for entertainment ($p < .05$). Although no significance was reached after Scheffe's multiple comparisons test was used, it is worth noting that the largest gender difference appeared when the spouses had equal resources (Table 32). Furthermore, when the wife was described as having equal (mean = 11.94) or more resources (mean = 11.46), females held relatively more egalitarian attitudes than did males. Men

Table 31
Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task Performance as a Function of
Resources -- Algeria

	Wife>Husband (N=101)		Husband=Wife (N=113)		Husband>Wife (N=100)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>							
Saving money	11.87	2.99	11.60	2.48	11.43	2.82	NS
Spending money	11.50	3.01	11.73	2.39	11.26	2.91	NS
Dealing with children	12.76	2.13	12.90	2.07	12.88	1.90	NS
Visiting in-laws	11.89	2.13	12.18	2.39	12.20	2.60	NS
Visiting friends	10.95	2.69	10.61	2.58	10.65	2.72	NS
Vacation/leisure time	11.04	2.21	11.12	1.82	11.07	2.23	NS
<u>Household Tasks</u>							
Cooking	16.89	3.23	16.73	2.52	17.48	2.70	NS
Washing dishes	15.91	3.58	15.79	3.20	16.00	3.54	NS
Food shopping	9.94	3.44	10.49	2.91	11.27	3.22	.05
Laundry/ironing	17.50	2.92	17.34	2.70	17.38	2.89	NS
Child care	14.29	2.53	14.46	2.58	14.37	2.38	NS
Child entertain- ment	11.20	2.16	11.57	2.00	11.14	1.94	NS

Significance based upon two-way ANOVA (gender main effects are presented elsewhere).

Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance; and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

Table 29

Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making and Household Task Performance as a Function of Spouses' Relative Resources and Gender -- United States

	Wife > Husband (N=65)				Wife = Husband (N=63)				Husband > Wife (N=64)				p<		
	Males (N=32)		Females (N=33)		Males (N=30)		Females (N=33)		Males (N=31)		Females (N=33)				
	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.	Mean S.D.			
Family Decisions															
Saving money	12.88	1.61	12.81	1.26	NS	11.76	.85	11.97	17	NS	11.35	1.56	11.75	.86	NS
Spending money	12.90	1.27	12.75	1.37	NS	11.90	.80	12.03	.30	NS	11.48	1.02	11.75	.90	NS
Dealing with children	12.03	.73	12.48	1.09	NS	12.53	1.07	12.51	1.14	NS	12.32	.74	12.66	1.05	NS
Visiting in-laws	12.25	.80	12.03	.17	NS	12.00	1.41	12.27	.91	NS	12.38	1.45	12.15	.66	NS
Visiting friends	11.87	.55	12.06	.24	NS	11.96	.85	12.18	.63	NS	11.80	.87	12.03	.63	NS
Vacation/leisure time	12.21	.75	12.06	.34	NS	11.50	1.61	12.00	.00	NS	11.58	.92	11.93	.24	.05
Household Tasks															
Cooking	14.34	2.80	12.36	2.05	NS	14.23	2.64	13.39	2.17	NS	13.74	2.82	13.54	1.88	NS
Washing dishes	13.68	2.33	12.15	1.88	.01	12.96	2.17	12.93	1.76	NS	13.12	2.32	12.61	2.27	NS
Food shopping	13.71	2.42	12.81	1.95	NS	12.86	2.43	13.39	2.16	NS	14.19	2.88	13.54	2.46	NS
Laundry/ironing	14.59	2.97	13.00	2.04	.05	14.63	2.56	13.60	2.27	NS	14.29	2.84	14.15	2.06	NS
Child care	12.37	1.71	12.24	1.19	NS	12.96	1.32	12.78	1.38	NS	13.09	1.64	12.69	1.35	NS
Child entertain-ment	11.93	2.18	11.96	1.04	NS	11.93	1.20	12.15	.75	NS	12.16	1.09	12.06	.65	NS

Significance based upon t-tests comparing American males and females.
 Note: Analyses were performed on summed scores (3 to 21). Scores smaller than 12 indicated the husband's predominance; scores greater than 12 indicated the wife's predominance, and 12 indicated equality between spouses.

reported that the wife should participate the least when she had more resources (mean = 10.96); women expressed the same inclination when the wife had less resources. Hence, the respondents attributed less responsibility to the spouse of the opposite sex when she/he had more resources.

As can be seen in Table 33, there were about twice as many gender main effects in Algeria than in the United States. Women significantly held more positive attitudes toward sharing the decisions about the amount of money to save, to spend, visiting friends, and spending vacation and leisure time than did men. However, they appeared to be less egalitarian than men (mean = 12.46) toward sharing the decision about visiting in-laws. As indicated by the data, not only did the male respondents hold less egalitarian attitudes but also reported that the husband should have a greater decision-making prerogative than the wife. It is interesting to note that, in spite of their greater inclination toward equality, women reported that the wife should have more responsibility for making decisions about the amount of money to save (mean = 12.08) and to spend (mean = 12.16), and about visiting in-laws (mean = 12.46). In other words, the respondents showed a tendency to attribute relatively more responsibility to the spouse of their own sex.

As for domestic chores, three significant gender differences emerged. Women, more than men, indicated that the members of couples should share the following tasks: washing the dishes; laundry and

Table 33
Gender Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task performance -- Algeria

	Males (N=157)		Females (N=157)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	11.17	3.08	12.08	2.31	.01
Spending money	10.85	3.01	12.16	2.35	.001
Dealing with children	12.68	2.44	13.01	1.51	NS
Visiting in-laws	11.72	2.73	12.46	2.18	.01
Visiting friends	9.59	2.84	11.86	1.87	.001
Vacation/leisure time	10.50	2.48	11.65	1.37	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	17.31	2.75	16.71	2.89	NS
Washing dishes	16.75	3.15	15.03	3.48	.001
Food shopping	10.26	3.36	10.85	3.05	NS
Laundry/ironing	17.76	2.66	17.05	1.94	.05
Child care	14.74	2.59	14.00	2.35	.01
Child entertainment	11.20	2.15	11.43	1.92	NS

Significant' differences between Algerian males and females based upon a two-way ANOVA (resource main effects are presented elsewhere).

ironing; and child care. However, both genders seemed to agree that the wife should contribute more than the husband in the performance of these activities.

One-way analyses of variance, where resources were the independent variable, were performed on Algerian males and females. Two resource main effects emerged for women: cooking ($p < .05$) and entertaining children ($p < .05$). In all three conditions, females felt that the wife should assume more responsibility for cooking than the husband. However, they indicated that she should contribute the most (mean = 17.54) when she had less resources and the least (mean = 16.20) when she had more resources. Moreover, they showed the greatest inclination toward equality when the husband had less resources. With respect to child entertainment, somewhat different results were obtained. In comparison to the wife with more resources (mean = 11.46), the wife with less resources was attributed less responsibility (mean = 10.86). The impact of equal resources was in the hypothesized direction.

Only one resource main effect was found for men (food shopping, $p < .01$). Husbands with less resources than their wives were assigned the largest amount of responsibility (mean = 9.25) and the smallest amount when they had more resources (11.96). Contrary to what was expected, Algerian males did not hold the most positive attitude when the spouses had equal resources (mean = 10.68), but did so when the wife had less resources (mean = 11.61).

Hypothesis 7 stated that: regardless of resource differentials, Americans and females attribute a more egalitarian balance of decision-making and task performance to described spouses than do Algerians and males, respectively.

To test this hypothesis, two major analyses were used. First, three-way analyses of variance were performed: individual decisions and household tasks were the dependent variables, and culture and sex were the independent variables (resource main effects were reported earlier). Second, t-tests were used to compare males' and females' average scores for decisions and tasks within each condition.

Gender differences are shown in Table 34. Males and females differed significantly on each decision except for the ones about visiting in-laws and dealing with children. As hypothesized, women more than men reported that decisions should be equally shared between spouses. A similar inclination was expressed by females concerning domestic chores, namely, washing dishes, doing laundry and ironing, and taking care of children.

As indicated in Table 35, Algerian and Americans differed significantly on every decision except for the one about visiting in-laws. Overall, Americans showed a tendency to attribute a relatively more egalitarian balance of decision-making than did Algerians. Moreover, Algerians ascribed more responsibility to the husband for making decisions while Americans appeared to assign more responsibility to the wife. As predicted, American respondents were more inclined than Algerian respondents to attribute an equal division

Table 34
Gender Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task performance -- Overall Sample

	Males (N=250)		Females (N=256)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	11.48	2.64	12.12	1.91	.01
Spending money	11.32	2.56	12.17	1.95	.001
Dealing with children	12.54	2.01	12.83	1.38	NS
Visiting in-laws	11.90	2.30	12.34	1.76	NS
Visiting friends	10.44	2.55	11.95	1.50	.001
Vacation/leisure time	10.98	2.17	11.78	1.10	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	16.12	3.15	15.44	3.02	.01
Washing dishes	15.46	3.31	14.07	3.23	.001
Food shopping	11.50	3.49	11.78	2.99	NS
Laundry/ironing	16.55	3.12	15.71	3.15	.001
Child care	14.02	2.46	13.45	2.13	.05
Child entertainment	11.50	1.99	11.67	1.61	NS

Significant differences between males and females based upon three-way ANOVA (culture and resource main effects are presented elsewhere).

Table 35
Cultural Differences in Ratings of the Balance of Decision-Making
and Household Task performance

	Algeria (N=314)		United States (N=192)		
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	P<
<u>Family Decisions</u>					
Saving money	11.63	2.76	12.09	1.28	.05
Spending money	11.50	2.77	12.14	1.31	.01
Dealing with children	12.85	2.03	12.42	.99	.01
Visiting in-laws	12.09	2.49	12.18	.98	.001
Visiting friends	10.73	2.66	11.98	.66	NS
Vacation/leisure time	11.08	2.08	11.89	.84	.001
<u>Household Tasks</u>					
Cooking	17.01	2.83	13.76	2.41	.001
Washing dishes	15.89	3.42	12.89	2.16	.001
Food shopping	10.56	3.22	13.42	2.41	.001
Laundry/ironing	17.40	2.82	14.03	2.51	.001
Child care	14.37	2.50	12.68	1.46	.001
Child entertainment	11.31	2.04	12.03	1.24	.001

Significant differences between Algerians and Americans based upon three way ANOVA (gender and resource main effects are presented elsewhere).

of domestic labor. However, in both cultures the respondents indicated that the wife should make a greater contribution in performing traditional domestic chores. It is important to note that, unlike Americans, Algerians felt that food shopping and child entertainment should be assumed more by the husband than by the wife.

As mentioned previously, cultural and gender differences were also assessed by means of a series of t-tests. As hypothesized, across conditions Algerians appeared to be less egalitarian than did Americans. As to the comparison between genders, whether spouses had equal or unequal resources, women ascribed a more egalitarian balance of decision-making than did males ($p < .001$). With regard to sharing domestic chores, women held a more positive attitude than did men only in situations where the wife had more resources ($p < .01$). While no significant sex differences emerged in situations where the spouses had equal resources, and when the wife had less resources than her husband, it should be noted that women tended to be more egalitarian.

Miscellaneous Findings

In this section some findings unrelated to the major hypotheses, but of interest, are presented. The latter deal with: the variance difference across groups; the relationships between personal attitudes and judgments of the scenario couples; the impact of residence of origin and major on attitudes; the discrepancy between tasks and

decisions; comparison of personal attitudes and subjective norms; and the underlying factor structures of the decision and household task performance.

Variance Difference Across Different Groups

Although the difference in variances between the two samples was not statistically tested, it appeared to be consistently larger in the Algerian sample than in the American sample. This difference was observed for most items and particularly for those related to decision-making. Furthermore, the standard deviations were generally larger in the male than in the female sample. However, an examination of the data by culture and by sex indicates that the difference in variances between males and females was larger in the Algerian than in the American sample.

Personal Attitudes and Judgments of the Scenario Couples

In order to determine whether the respondents were consistent in their ratings, their own attitudes were compared with the way they judged couples. Paired t -tests were used to serve this purpose. Analyses were performed on a 7-point scale (-3 to 3). A score greater than zero means the husband's predominance; a score smaller than zero means the wife's predominance; and zero means equal sharing between the spouses.

Algeria. In scenarios where the wife was described as having more resources, the respondents appeared to use the same pattern of

rating for themselves and for the couples for all items except for the decision about saving money ($t = -2.33$; $p < .05$). For the latter, they ascribed a relatively equal participation to scenario spouses (mean = .005); however, when asked about their own future marriage, they felt that the husband should have greater responsibility for making such a decision (mean = .28).

In scenarios where the husband was described as having more resources, one significant difference with respect to decisions appeared ($t = -2.17$; $p < .05$). The respondents showed a more egalitarian view concerning the spouses' contribution in making decisions about the amount of money to save (mean = .02) than they did when they considered their own future marriage (mean = .28). More significant differences ($p < .05$ or better) concerning domestic chores emerged. The respondents exhibited more egalitarian attitudes toward child care in their own future marriage (mean = -.56) than they did when they judged couples (mean = -.79). However, for food shopping, laundry, and ironing they tended to favor equality more for the described couples than for themselves.

Whether judging couples described as having equal resources or reporting their own attitudes, the respondents preferred the man to have a greater contribution in making the decision about visiting friends. Nevertheless, they appeared to hold a more egalitarian attitude toward other couples ($t = -3.6$; $p < .01$) than toward themselves. This tendency to exhibit more "traditionalism" for self

than for others was found in ratings of other items, namely, cooking ($\underline{t} = 3.42$; $p < .001$), laundry, and ironing ($\underline{t} = 2.19$; $p < .05$). However, the respondents held more egalitarian attitudes toward child care for themselves than for described couples. Nevertheless, in both instances (self and others) they indicated that the woman should be more responsible than the man for taking care of children.

United States. When reporting their own attitudes, the respondents felt that the husband should have a more responsibility for making the decision about the amount of money to save (mean = .20), but when rating described couples where the wife had more resources, they held a more egalitarian attitude (mean = .04; $p < .001$ level; $\underline{t} = -2.72$). The opposite was found for the decision about the amount of money to spend ($\underline{t} = -3.03$; $p < .001$). While they were more in favor of equality with respect to their future marriage (mean = .04) they ascribed the wife greater responsibility than her husband (mean = -.27).

Paired \underline{t} -tests demonstrated two significant differences between personal attitudes and judgments of couples ($p < .05$) where the husband was described as having more resources than his wife. The respondents allocated a relatively equal participation to both spouses in making the decision about the amount of money to save (mean = .07); but they felt that in their own marriage, the man should have a greater say in the matter (mean = .21). With regard to the decision about visiting friends, they attributed more responsibility to the woman when

assessing their own attitudes (mean = $-.18$) but they held a more egalitarian view when judging other couples (mean = $.02$).

In scenarios where the spouses were described as having equal resources, the respondents felt that the decision about the amount of money to save should be equally shared between the spouses (mean = $.005$). However, they attributed more responsibility to the man when reporting their own attitudes (mean = $.19$).

In summary, there were few significant differences between the respondents' attitudes and the way they judged couples. Generally speaking, fewer differences were found in the United States than in Algeria. However, regardless of culture the respondents appeared to be more liberal for the scenario couples than for themselves.

Impact of Major and Residence on Personal Attitudes

In order to determine the effect of major on attitudes (global attitudes and average deviation scores), one-way analyses of variance were performed. In Algeria, no main effect was found for females but it did emerge for males (for deviation scores only). Students who were in "hard" sciences were significantly more egalitarian ($p < .05$) with regard to sharing decisions (mean = $-.79$) than students in other majors (mean = -1.01). Similarly, they showed a more positive inclination toward equal participation in household chores (mean = -1.23) than the rest of the male students (mean = -1.60). In the United States, women in "hard" sciences held a significantly more liberal view ($p < .05$) only toward sharing the responsibility for

household work (mean = $-.43$; 2.06) than women in other majors (mean = $-.79$; 2.95).

To be eligible to live on campus, the Algerian students' permanent residence must be at least 50 kilometers away from Algiers. These students usually come from small towns and rural areas. An attempt was made to determine whether the geographical origin had any effect on attitudes. A one-way analysis of variance was performed to serve this purpose. Location was the independent variable and, decisions and household tasks were the dependent variables. There was a main effect ($p < .05$) for one item only. Off-campus students were found to hold a more positive attitude toward sharing child entertainment (mean = 3.90) than were on-campus students (mean = 3.64).

Sharing the Decision About Dealing with Children Versus Taking Care of Them

As mentioned previously, men exhibited a greater preference for sharing decisions than for sharing household tasks. To determine whether this preference held true when decisions and tasks were related to the same domain, males' attitudes toward sharing the decision about dealing with children was compared to their attitudes toward sharing child care using paired t -tests. Regardless of culture, male respondents exhibited a more positive attitude toward a joint decision about dealing with children than toward taking care of them ($p < .001$). Paired t -tests yielded similar results when the

respondents rated couples. In other words, they believed that spouses should share the decision about dealing with children more than they should share the task of taking care of them.

Personal Attitudes and Subjective Norms

It was previously reported that Algerians were less likely to comply with their personal referents than were Americans. It is assumed that the degree of compliance is determined to a certain extent by the difference of attitudes between self and others. Thus, the more one perceives others to hold similar beliefs and attitudes, the more he tends to comply. Paired t -tests were used to compare the respondents' attitudes with what they believed important people would think. The data revealed that the respondents were significantly more egalitarian than most people who are important to them with regard to sharing decisions and household tasks. Moreover, the difference between the respondents' attitudes toward sharing decisions and that of important people was significantly larger ($t = 4.35$, $p < .001$) in Algeria (mean = 1.01) than it was in the United States (mean = .39). Although the difference between personal attitudes toward sharing chores and that of important people was not statistically significant it appeared to be larger in Algeria (mean = .73) than in the United States (mean = .56).

Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was performed to determine the underlying

structure of the decision and household task items used by respondents to rate described couples and assess their own attitudes. Furthermore, the investigator wished to determine to what extent the structure differed as a function of culture and gender.

The underlying structure of the task items was the same for both cultures and both genders. Two factors were generated. Factor I, which accounted for 86% of the variance, consisted of the following items: cooking, dish washing, laundry and ironing, and child care. This factor was named traditionally oriented female roles. Variables that appeared to have high loadings on Factor II were: food shopping and child entertainment. This seems to represent best non-domestic activities.

The following section will focus on the structure of the decision items. Since the underlying structures used to rate couples (resources) and report personal attitudes were different, they will be presented separately. In addition, the results of the factor analysis will be reported for the overall sample and for each gender across cultures.

Resources

United States males. Items loading highly on Factor I were saving money (.49), spending money (.91), and vacation and leisure time (.53). This factor accounted for 55.9% of the variance. It was named money related decisions. Factor II included dealing with children (.43)., visits to in-laws (.92), and visits to friends (.57).

This appears to represent interpersonal decisions.

United States females. Three factors were extracted. Factor I accounted for 47.3% of the variance, Factor II accounted for 36.4% of the variance and factor III accounted for 16.3% of the variance. Factor I exhibited high loading on saving ($r = .69$) and spending money ($r = .96$). This factor was labeled money related decisions. Factor II had high loadings on dealing with children (.33), visits to in-laws (.75), and friends (.77). This factor appeared to represent interpersonal decisions. Factor III had high loadings on vacation and leisure time (.69).

Algerian males. Three factors were extracted. Factor I, which accounted for 51.4% of the variance, had high loadings on saving (.50) and spending (.99). This factor was labeled money related decisions. Factor II had high loadings on visits to in-laws (.46), visits to friends (.80), and vacation and leisure time (.80). This factor seemed to represent interpersonal decisions. Factor III included only dealing with children (.69).

Algerian females. Two factors were generated. Factor I (69.1% of the variance) had high loadings on spending money (.39), visits to in-laws (.34), friends (.56), and vacation and leisure time (.52). This factor was difficult to interpret and thus could not be given a label. Factor II loaded highly only on saving (.83).

Attitudes

Algerian males. Two factors were extracted. Factor I

included saving (.77), spending (.59), and vacation (.47). This factor was labeled money related decisions. Factor II was constituted of in-laws (.51) and friends (.77); it was labeled interpersonal decisions.

Algerian females. Three factors emerged from the decision items. Factor I had high loading on visits to in-laws (.27), visits to friends (.94) and vacation and leisure time (.35). This appeared to represent socially-oriented decisions. Factor II, which had loading (.67) on saving (.75) and spending (.67) seems to represent money related decisions. Factor III was composed only of dealing with children (.45).

United States males. Three factors were generated. Factor I had high loadings on visits to friends (.88) and vacation and leisure time (.75). This factor was labeled interpersonal decisions. Factor II was composed of saving (.69) and spending (.77). It was labeled money-related decisions. Factor III consisted of only visits to in-laws (.85).

United States females. Two factors emerged. Factor I had high loadings on dealing with children (.43), visits to in-laws (.94), and vacation and leisure time (.36). It was labeled interpersonal decisions. Factor II consisted of saving (.47), spending (.86) and visiting friends (.34). Because this factor could not be readily interpreted it was not labeled.

Summary. As stated previously, the same underlying structure of

the task items emerged for males and females in both countries. As for decisions, some differences were found. Overall, Algerians as well as Americans seemed to consider the decision about vacation and leisure time as a social activity (and interpersonal decision). However, a close examination of the attitude data shows that, while Algerian females and American males and females appeared to associate such a decision with social activities (and interpersonal relations), Algerian males seemed to regard it as a money matter. It is also interesting to note that the decision about how to deal with children did not fit with the rest of the items for the overall sample, but it did constitute a factor by itself for Algerian females and was included in the interpersonal decisions for American females. The resource data showed a slightly different item structure. Algerian males appeared to dissociate the decision about child education from others, whereas American males and females included it with interpersonal decisions. Surprisingly, this decision did not fit with the rest of the decisions for Algerian females.

Summary of Results

The major findings, which will be discussed in the next chapter, are summarized below.

1. Overall, Algerian students held less positive attitudes toward marital role equality than did American students. Algerian students

reported that men should have more responsibility than women for making decisions, except for the decision about dealing with children. American students seemed to assign more responsibility to men for money-related decisions but more responsibility to women for interpersonal decisions. Similarly, Algerians appeared to be less egalitarian with respect to sharing household tasks than did Americans. Nevertheless, respondents of both countries preferred women to participate more in performing traditional domestic tasks (e.g., cooking). It is important, however, to mention that unlike Americans, Algerians indicated that food shopping and child entertainment should be more men's responsibility than women's. Finally, fewer significant cultural differences emerged in the area of decision-making than in the area of household task performance.

2. Gender differences appeared overall as well as within cultures. Generally speaking, females were found to be more in favor of equality than were men. However, females in both cultures indicated that more responsibility should be assigned to women for making most decisions. In contrast, men preferred to have more decision-making responsibility than women. Fewer sex differences were found in attitudes toward sharing household tasks than in sharing decisions. Females showed a greater inclination toward equality in household task performance; however, they tended to agree with men that they (females) should have greater responsibility for performing such tasks. In addition to gender differences within country, males

and females differed more in Algeria than did males and females in the United States. Furthermore, the difference between Algerian and American females was smaller than the difference between Algerian and American males.

3. Males and females reported that they preferred sharing decisions more than sharing domestic chores. They also indicated that it would be less difficult to share decisions than to share tasks.

4. Although on the whole the intentions to share equally family decisions and domestic chores were essentially predicted from attitudes and perceived control, some cultural and gender differences appeared. Overall, Algerians' and males' (in both countries) intentions were better predicted than Americans' and females' intentions respectively. As mentioned earlier, the intention to share domestic chores was more completely accounted for than the intention to share decisions.

5. The respondents in the overall sample indicated that members of couples described as having more resources should have more responsibility for making decisions about the amount of money to save and to spend than their spouses. However, when spouses had equal resources, the respondents reported that more responsibility should be assigned to the husband. With regard to household tasks, resources appeared to affect the respondents' ratings only for food shopping. Regardless of sex, spouses with more resources were assigned less responsibility than their partners. In situations where the spouses

had equal resources the respondents felt that the husband should be more responsible for food shopping.

Resources appeared to affect the Algerians' and Americans' ratings differently. Only in the United States did the respondents report that spouses with more resources should have more responsibility in money matters (including vacation and leisure time). Similarly, only in the United States did the respondents feel that the wife with more resources should have less responsibility for child care than wives with equal or less resources than their husband. In Algeria, resources had an impact only on the respondents' ratings of food shopping. Across conditions, more responsibility was allocated to husbands. However, their responsibility for this task seemed to decrease when they were described as having more resources and increase when they were described as having less resources than their wives.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study focused on attitudes toward marital role equality in relation to gender, culture, and socio-economic resources. It specifically examined the way men and women, and Algerians and Americans differed with regard to sharing family decisions and household tasks equally with their future spouses. Further, it examined the respondents' judgments of the desirable balance of decision-making and household task performance in relation to spouses' relative resources as described in the scenarios. The prediction of intention to share equally the above marital roles was another goal of this study. This chapter focuses on findings relating to: (1) differences in attitudes toward marital role equality by culture and gender; (2) the theory of planned behavior; and (3) the theory of resources.

Differences in Attitudes by Culture and Gender

Cultural Differences

Overall, Algerian students were less in favor of sharing marital roles with their future spouses than were American students.

Although Algerian and American students did not differ significantly on every decision, their ratings seem to reflect the

norms and values of their cultural backgrounds. In both the United States and Algeria, the respondents indicated that men should have greater decision-making responsibility than women in financial matters. Does this imply that cultural norms and values that regulate sex-roles in the two cultures associate men with greater authority (than women) in money-related decisions simply on the basis of their gender? Although gender has been reported to determine the balance of decision-making, it is clear that in the United States males' authority is also related to their socioeconomic achievement. In industrial societies, authority is based on individual achievement such as educational level, income, and occupation (Michel, 1967). Since interpersonal relationships generally reflect the values of society and since men still continue to have access to resources that lead to power, it is not surprising that the American respondents also indicated that men are to be granted more responsibility for making decisions related to economic matters.

In Algeria, as in most developing countries constrained by traditions which give more privileges to men than to women, decision-making power in families is essentially based on gender. The man is the leader of the family unit, and thus has the power to make most of the important decisions. The Algerian sample used in this study appears to favor equality to a great extent, yet the respondents showed a preference for men having more responsibility for making most of the decisions.

As mentioned previously, American students ascribed more responsibility to women for interpersonal decisions. This suggests that, although the respondents tended to prefer making decisions jointly with their future spouses, they also took into consideration the domain of decisions in ascribing responsibility. In other words, they drew a line, no matter how fine it might be, between decisions that relate to women's domain and those that relate to men's domain. Thus, men are expected to be more responsible for making decisions that involve money while women are expected to be more responsible for making decisions that relate to social and interpersonal relationships. This specialization that appears to be based on sex may be related to the expected financial resources provided by men and women. Since women generally contribute less to the family income they are expected to contribute less to money-related decisions. However, as part of their nurturing role, they are expected to contribute more to interpersonal decisions.

The distinction between "masculine" and "feminine" decisions is interpreted differently for the Algerian sample. With the exception of the decision about dealing with children, the Algerian respondents preferred men to have greater responsibility for the rest of the decisions which involve either money or social visits. Both types of decisions (money and social visits) are associated with the external world, which is considered to be the world of men. Therefore, it may be argued that the distinction between "masculine" and "feminine"

decisions parallels the distinction between the public and domestic spheres. In the United States, the distinction may be mediated by the expected resources provided by men and women. That is, since most men are the primary providers of economic resources in their families, most American students might well expect men to make financial decisions.

As reported earlier, the data indicated differences as well as similarities in the two student populations' attitudes toward sharing domestic chores. They were different in the sense that more inclination toward equality was expressed by the American than by the Algerian students. They also differed with regard to the ratings of food shopping and child entertainment.

It is clear from the data that, unlike Americans, Algerians believed that food shopping and child entertainment are more the men's responsibility. This is probably related to the fact that both tasks are associated with the external world. Child entertainment may take place at home as well as outside the home (e.g., amusement park). Since Algerians are assumed to associate men with the outside world to a great extent, it is not surprising that they believed that greater responsibility should be assigned to men to perform this task. The same reasoning is assumed to hold for food shopping. As claimed by Tillon (1960), food shopping has traditionally been done by men in the Mediterranean countries. Being a Mediterranean country, but not having evolved at the same rate as the European countries, Algeria

appears to have held on to this tradition. In addition, one might consider the fact that food shopping is also a money matter, and thus may be confounded with money-related decisions. Finally, in Algeria, as in other Arab countries, men are expected to protect women who are close to them: mother, sister, and wife. Therefore, one can speculate that, by assuming the food shopping responsibility, men believe the "harassment" that women could face in the outside world could be minimized. In contrast, in the United States food shopping is part of traditional female roles (Orlofsky, 1981).

The similarity between the Algerian and American respondents lies in the fact that they agreed that traditional household tasks should be performed more by women. Moreover, they showed the greatest resistance toward sharing laundry and ironing possibly because they may consider them more traditionally female tasks than other domestic tasks.

In conclusion, Algerians expressed more "traditionalism" than did Americans. This difference is undoubtedly due to the differences in the dominant ideology in the two countries. As a result of the increasing shift toward egalitarianism, Americans are more likely to accept sex-role changes. In contrast, Algerians may be less flexible and tend to hold on more to traditions. Therefore, the notion that the more modern a society is, the more people accept the norm that marital roles should be shared (Magnarella, 1972; Rodman, 1979; Williamson, 1982) is supported in this study. As mentioned

previously, more cultural differences were found in the area of household tasks than in the area of decision-making. This suggests that the level of modernity can be assessed by the changes that occur in traditional sex-roles such as performing housework.

Gender Differences

Male-female comparisons revealed three major findings: (1) overall women were more likely to endorse equality than were men; (2) both males and females tended to assign more decision-making responsibility to themselves than to their future spouse; and (3) males and females generally agreed that women should contribute more to performing domestic chores.

Consistent with previous findings (Tomeh, 1978; Sexton, 1978; Araji, 1977; Dodd, 1974), the present data showed that women's attitudes were significantly more egalitarian than men's. In this study, gender differences will be explained in terms of gains and losses implied in sex equality. Although the status of women is better in some societies than in others, women still remain discriminated against, oppressed, and denied legitimate power (Gillespie, 1971; Engels; 1960; El-Saadawi, 1981). Men have more power either because they hold resources that give them more bargaining power, or because they are males (Goode, 1964). In an equal relationship, men would have to relinquish some of the benefits that they would enjoy in an unequal relationship. Some of these benefits are decision-making power and the avoidance of housework.

Conversely, for women an equal relationship would imply a better status and gains of benefits they are often denied. This explains to a great extent why women were more in favor of equality than were men.

Women's preference to have more decision-making responsibility than their future husbands, in both countries, indicates that not only they opposed the idea that their future husbands play the dominant role, but also preferred to be more in charge. Does this imply that women in this sample would seek "role reversal" in decision-making rather than equal participation? The data do not provide an answer to this question, however, they show that women preferred not to trade their traditional role of homemaker since they reported that they preferred to assume greater household responsibility than their future husbands. The marriage literature suggests several reasons for women not expecting the husband to help around the house. Some of the reasons may be used to explain why the female respondents wanted to be in charge of the domestic sphere.

According to Yogev (1981), the division of labor still exists, not only because men resist participating but also because

...women do not want or expect their husbands to share these responsibilities equally. It is important for them to have this unfair division so it will enable a wife to feel that she is the "mother of the family". (Yogev, 1981; p. 858)

Therefore, it may be argued that inequality of the division of labor could be used as a resource (leading to some power) by women. Some researchers have argued that socioeconomic resources are not the only

resources that affect marital power (Safilios-Rothchild, 1976; Scanlon, 1979). Since women in general have fewer economic resources, one can understand why some women make use of non-tangible resources to have access to some power, such as the control of the domestic sphere. Although women in this sample are likely to be professionals, they may expect to marry men with more resources than they expect to have, and hence expect to have less control than their future husbands.

Sex-role segregation has also been explained in terms of socialization (Pleck, 1977). Little boys are punished for competing with little girls who very early learn to assume the role of housewife. It is argued that even unsatisfied mothers teach their daughters their own role of housewife and mother (Oakely, 1974). As expressed by some researchers, mothers may pass on their "roles" to their daughters not because they feel the psychological need to do so but because they "do not see other opportunities for them" (Erickson et al., 1979, p. 302). In this respect, it is most probable that Algerian as well as American women have been strongly conditioned to believe that domestic tasks are the woman's responsibility.

Although males and females differed in the same direction in both cultures, gender differences were larger in Algeria than they were in the United States. This suggests that females in traditional societies may be more flexible and open to social change than males. In Algeria the largest gender difference concerned the decision about

visiting friends, while in the United States it concerned the decision about spending money. This suggests that in Algeria interpersonal aspects are likely to create friction in relationships while in the United States financial aspects are likely to be a source of conflict.

Interaction Between Gender and Culture

It was predicted that females would hold more similar attitudes than would men. This prediction was supported for reporting personal attitudes as well as judging the desirable balance for decision-making and task performance between spouses described in scenarios.

The finding just noted can be explained in terms of the interaction between gender and culture. In spite of the social changes that are taking place, relationships between males and females remain characterized by patriarchal norms and values. Males still represent the dominant group and women the subordinate group (Collins, 1975; El-Saadawi, 1980). Therefore, it is only natural that women, as members of the oppressed group, would hold similar attitudes toward marital role equality. Thus, it can be argued that women's attitudes toward equality are more strongly determined by their widespread desire not to be the victims of oppression than by cultural norms, while men's attitudes result more from cultural norms. However, this does not imply that men hold the same attitudes in all societies nor does it imply that women hold the same attitudes across cultures.

In Algeria social norms and values still operate to reinforce and sustain sex-role segregation. Therefore, men have good reasons to

hold on to traditions that allow them to enjoy power and privileges that they would lose in equal marital relationships. Talking about Arab men in general, El-Saadawi (1980) explains their resistance to women's liberation and sex equality as follows:

The experience and intelligence of women are a menace to this patriarchal class structure and in turn a menace to the false position in which a man is placed, the position of a god or semi-god in his relation with women. This is why most men fear or even hate intelligent women. (p. 77)

Algerian female students, who are undoubtedly the most liberal women in Algeria, have reached a level of consciousness that calls for a change in sex-roles. Thus, unlike Algerian men, they are less likely to hold on to traditions that promote unequal sex relationships.

In the United States, where there is an increasing shift toward egalitarianism, men and women tend to have more similar attitudes than Algerian men and women as has been shown in this study. American women undeniably have been more active in the fight for equal rights than Algerian women. As a result, American men have had a greater exposure to "principles of equality" than Algerian men. Thus, it may be argued that American male students are at a more advanced stage of unlearning traditional patterns of male-female relationships than Algerian male students. Therefore, Algerian male students may be less likely than American male students to favor equality because they would consequently lose more benefits and privileges than would American men. As mentioned previously, Algerian female students

avored equality more than did males. Thus, their attitudes were closer to Americans' of either sex than they were to those of Algerian males.

In conclusion, Algerian and American female students were more similar undoubtedly because their attitudes are essentially determined by a strong desire for an equitable balance of decision-making and domestic chores. In contrast, Algerian and American men appear to view male-female relationships more differently than do women across the two cultures.

Sharing Decisions Versus Sharing Household Tasks

The hypothesis that, regardless of culture, men prefer to share decisions more than household tasks was supported by the data. As shown below, this finding has been attributed to several possible reasons.

Traditionally, men have been assigned to the public sphere while women have been confined to the domestic and private sphere (Nielsen, 1978; Boutefnouchet, 1980). Moreover, power and prestige are derived from the public sphere (Lamphere, 1978). Work performed in the latter is associated with an "exchange value" and tangible rewards, whereas women's work produces "services and goods" that are immediately consumed by the family (Nielson, 1978). This division of labor is becoming less rigid as more women are entering the world of paid work. It has been argued that women's increasing participation in the labor force has led to a more egalitarian division of domestic chores

between spouses (Young & Willmott, 1973). However, some researchers have found that, in spite of women's participation in the labor force, men have not fully accepted sharing housework (Pleck, 1978; Berk, 1978; Walshok, 1979). Thus, working women continue to assume most of the responsibility for household tasks. Hence, the question that needs to be addressed is why men accept having working wives and yet seem to resist sharing housework. With the advent of industrialization and modernization there appears to have been a gradual shift toward a more egalitarian ideology at the societal level and the interpersonal level. Men are faced with the fact that women have equal rights because it is dictated by the new ideology. However, while this new ideology has opened the possibility for women to assume part of the role of the breadwinner, it has apparently not expanded traditional domestic roles for men. Hence, women have penetrated the world of men while men have not generally entered the domain reserved for women by society. Therefore, housework remains linked to gender. As mentioned earlier, although more decision-making power has been assigned to men, it is less based on gender than is household task performance. Consequently, one can argue that sharing decision-making may be less threatening to a man's self image than sharing household task.

The frequency of decision-making and task performance could also explain why men are more reluctant to share the former than the latter. Undeniably, household chores have to be performed more often

than decisions have to be made. Since household matters seem to be more gender-linked than decision-making, one can speculate that it would be easier for men to endorse equality sporadically than frequently. In other words, sharing housework tasks may be a more powerful reminder of sex equality than sharing decision-making.

In addition to their preference for sharing family decisions over domestic chores, it must be noted that men reported significantly less difficulty sharing the former than the latter. As no reasons concerning the perceived ease or difficulty were investigated, the explanations to be presented are speculative. Apparently men are not ready yet to assume what they consider to be female roles. However, they may consider acceptable for a woman to engage in "male" roles. Likewise, men may consider it less demeaning to let women share their higher status (related to decision-making) than to "step down" by taking part in women's roles.

Men may be reluctant to perform domestic chores because they are time consuming and involve a considerable amount of work and effort. They may also consider these tasks undesirable. Indirect evidence to support this argument is provided by the data. Men in both cultures tended to prefer sharing child entertainment over sharing child care. It is evident, that more time and energy are needed to take care of children. In addition, men may believe that one way of sharing the responsibility for children is to entertain them and leave child care to women.

Finally, men's different preferences for marital roles could be due to their expectations that women would assume the role of homemaker. This expectation seems to be justified, since women also reported that they preferred sharing decision-making over sharing household tasks. This suggests that males and females have complementary attitudes which tend to perpetuate sex-role segregation.

The Theory of Planned Behavior

The hypothesis that subjective norms are a more powerful predictor of intentions in Algeria than in the United States was not confirmed. This unexpected finding is inconsistent with the general notion that people from traditional societies are strongly attached to customs and behave according to social expectations. Apparently, this notion does not apply to every social group as it is the case for Algerian students. Education has been linked to psychological modernity (Suzman, 1973), which in turn leads to openness to new experiences, increased autonomy, and control over one's life. Although, this study did not examine the relationship between psychological modernity and education, it is assumed that the Algerian students' apparent independence from traditional sources of influence results from formal education. In addition, Algerian students perceived themselves to be more egalitarian than "important others" which explains their general resistance to comply with other people's

expectations. In this view, one can understand why subjective norms failed to predict intentions to share decision-making and household task performance.

As expected, Americans' intentions were more determined by their attitudes than by subjective norms. Thus, in both countries the respondents gave precedence to their personal attitudes toward marital roles over social expectations.

In this section, an attempt will be made to discuss some of the findings that are not related to the central hypothesis. It must be noted, however, that the discussion will focus on the second set of variables used, mainly because they included all the components of the theory of planned behavior.

The major difference that emerged between the Algerian and American sample was in the accuracy of the prediction of the intention to share decisions. The intention was more accounted for in Algeria than in the United States. This suggests that Americans based their intentions on a greater variety of reasons. In other words, they would take more factors into consideration before deciding what would be the best way to share decisions. This finding may reflect the difference in the complexity of the two countries.

In both cultures, males' intentions to share tasks were better predicted than females' intentions. This may indicate that males' intentions are more dictated by a set pattern as to how household tasks should be divided between spouses. It is speculated that it

would be less clear for women to make a definite decision on the basis of the predictors used in this study. For example, the marriage orientation of the future spouse may be an important consideration in women's decisions concerning the division of domestic labor. This may be more relevant for the Algerian women, who probably expect to marry men less egalitarian than they are.

In addition to cultural differences regarding the components of the theory of planned behavior (e.g., attitudes), it is important to discuss the difference in variance in the two samples. The data showed greater variance in the Algerian than in the American sample, which indicates a broader range of attitudes and opinions in Algeria. Generally, less variance is found in societies where behavior is dictated by rigid customs and traditions. In such contexts, people tend to behave in agreement with social norms. However, this appears to be less applicable in societies that undergo rapid social change, such as Algeria. People do not respond similarly to social changes. For example, people who want to break away from traditions are predisposed to accept changes, while those strongly attached to traditions are likely to resist any change that threatens their (traditions) existence. Differences in attitudes may be accentuated when changes are likely to affect important aspects of life such as marriage. Therefore, in Algeria, which is in the process of changing, a wider range of attitudes should not come as a surprise.

In contrast, in the United States the sample was more

homogeneous, which implies that attitudes are more "crystalized". In spite of individual differences regarding the distribution of marital roles, there appears to be a general endorsement of egalitarianism. In Algeria, marital equality is a relatively new issue that leads to more visible differences between people as indicated by the data. In Algeria, gender differences were significantly larger than they were in the United States.

Algerians were less motivated to comply with the wishes of important others. Does this imply that Algerians are more modern than Americans since autonomy results from psychological modernity. The data do not provide an answer, however, they show that Algerians more than Americans believed that they were more egalitarian than important others. Not only did Algerians and Americans differ in their motivation to comply, but they also differed in terms of which personal referent they were most motivated to comply with. While Americans indicated that they generally do what their mothers want them to do, Algerians showed more compliance toward their fathers. This indicates that the father is the major authority figure in the Algerian family unit, but not in the American family unit.

Interestingly enough, Algerian males and females appeared to have a different perception of the world. Specifically, women more than men believed that their personal referents were in favor of equality. The explanation to be provided will only apply to the students' perception of parents. Algerian parents seem to accept equality more

for their daughters than for their sons possibly because they believe that the source of marital happiness differs for daughters and sons. Thus, what may be good for daughters may not necessarily be good for sons. Further, while equality may be evaluated positively and considered as help for daughters, it is likely to be considered as a burden for sons. Thus, Algerian parents may change the application of social rules according to the sex of their children.

In conclusion, despite cultural and gender differences, intentions were predicted with a considerable degree of accuracy. On this basis can we conclude, for example, that the Algerian men will have the least egalitarian balance of decision-making and task performance and that the American women will have the most egalitarian one. In other words, how strong will the relationship between intention and behavior be? According to the theory of planned behavior, the longer the time interval between intention and behavior the less accurate the prediction. Thus, these students may not necessarily behave according to their attitudes and intentions since they are only in their early twenties and probably do not expect or intend to marry in the near future. However, this should not in any way negate the fact that in general, they intended to have a fairly equal distribution of marital roles. Most important, this study provides evidence that the theory is applicable in Algeria as well as in the United States.

The Theory of Resources

The findings will be discussed in the context of each separate culture, as resources appeared to affect the Algerians' and the Americans' judgments differently.

United States

The hypothesis that subjects would make more egalitarian judgments when the spouses had equal resources than when they had unequal resources was supported for the decisions about the amount of money to save and to spend, but not for the decision about vacation and leisure time. The respondents felt that the latter should be more jointly made only when the wife had more resources. Most important, the respondents felt that the spouse with more resources should be more in charge of making economic decisions. This finding seems to be consistent with the general notion that the more resources a spouse possesses the more decision-making power he/she has (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Rodman, 1979; Centers et al., 1971; Brown, 1978; Michel, 1971).

Of particular interest is the finding that, although spouses with more resources than their partners were assigned more responsibility, the respondents tended to assign relatively more responsibility (for money to save and to spend) to the wife than to the husband. Rodman's (1979) "theory of resources in a cultural context" may be used to account for this finding. According to the theory, resources increase power (as explained earlier) as they may decrease power. People with

valuable resources (e.g., education) are likely to belong to upper social classes and usually tend to be egalitarian in family orientation. Furthermore, resources may have a different impact on males' and females' influence over decisions. Women tend to have more power while men tend to be more egalitarian. The present findings tend to fit the general proposition of this theory, since women assigned more responsibility to the wife with more resources than did the men to husbands' with more resources.

Compared to the wife with less resources, the wife with more resources was ascribed more responsibility for making the decision about spending vacation and leisure time. However, she was apparently not assigned as much responsibility for this decision as she was for the purely economic decisions. Since the reason for this finding is not clear, one can only speculate that the respondents might have felt that the wife's greater resources should not have such a great impact on a decision that is not so much related to money.

Resources seemed to affect the respondents' judgments of the division of domestic labor to a lesser extent. The balance of resources seemed to make a difference only in the rating of child care. Relatively less responsibility was attributed to the wives with more resource than to the wives in the other two conditions. This is consistent with findings that women who have access to resources get help from their husband (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Scanzoni, 1978). This is also consistent with findings that working wives contribute more in

domestic matters than do working husbands (Nickols & Metzen, 1982; Oakely, 1974).

Algeria

The Algerian students did not appear to base their judgments on resources to the same extent as did the American students. As a matter of fact, they took into consideration the spouses' relative resources only when rating certain household tasks. The findings will be discussed by gender since resources affected the males' and females' judgments differently.

Algerian males reported that food shopping should be primarily done by husbands regardless of resources. However, they indicated that the husbands' participation in this task should increase when they had less resources but decrease when they had more resources than their wives. This finding may be attributed to two possible reasons. Males may have felt that a wife possessing more resources is somewhat violating the social norms that the husband should be the major breadwinner. Therefore, to make up for the unusual resource differentials, the Algerian males may have felt that the husband, who is in an "inferior" position, should perform this "masculine" task to an even greater extent than when he had more resources. The second reason, which is less plausible, could be related to the fact that Algerian males felt that the husband should take the burden of food shopping since the wife was in a better financial position.

The Algerian females indicated that wives having more resources

should get more help from their husbands in cooking than wives with less resources. This is consistent with the findings that sharing of household tasks is enhanced when the wife has more resources (Haas, 1981). Another finding relates to women reporting that the husband should participate more in child entertainment when he had more resources than when he had less resources. Since the reason for this finding is not clear, it is assumed that women felt that child entertainment, which is usually the men's responsibility, should be shared to a greater extent when the wife had more resources as a sign of a fair distribution of marital roles. Or they may have associated the wife's greater resources with the husbands' diminished involvement in "masculine tasks".

In summary, the resource theory received support in the American sample regarding economic matters. In other words, the Americans based their judgments on resources only when considering money-related decisions. Therefore, it is assumed that income was more likely to affect the desired balance of decision-making than the other resources. Interestingly enough, American males appeared to be more affected by the spouses' resources than women as, unlike women, they felt that spouses with more resources should participate more in making the decision about spending vacation and leisure time. This is probably due to men associating such a decision with money matters while women appeared to associate it with interpersonal decisions as shown in the factor analysis. If indeed men base decision-making on

resources, then the question arises as to whether these male students expect or intend to marry women with fewer resources since they reported that in their future marriage they preferred to have more decision-making responsibility than their future wives. In this sample (American) resources did not seem to affect significantly the division of domestic labor. This indicates that other factors than resources determine the division of labor, such as gender. As mentioned previously, fewer gender differences were found in the area of household tasks, which suggests that both males and females tended to perpetuate sex-role segregation.

In conclusion, the theory of resources applied most to the American sample. This confirms the general notion that in highly industrialized societies power is derived from valuable resources. Does this imply that this western theory does not apply in a developing country like Algeria? It appears that in Algeria resources are less important factors in the division of marital roles than cultural norms. However, one can speculate that the theory may partially be applicable to Algerian women since they seemed to base the relative participation of spouses in one household task (cooking) on the resources provided by the spouses. In addition, it must be noted that women apparently reported that spouses with more resources should have a greater say in money matters than spouses with less resources.

Conclusion

This study demonstrated differences as well similarities between cultures and between genders. The major difference between the two societies was in the respondents' degree of egalitarianism. Overall, Algerians were less inclined toward marital role equality than were Americans, especially in household task performance. However, there were several similarities. First, both Algerians and Americans preferred sharing decisions over sharing domestic chores. Second, in spite of the strong inclination toward equality, there appears to be a general agreement that women should have the major responsibility for housework activities. Third, in both countries women expressed a more egalitarian view concerning their future marriage than did men. Finally, regardless of culture, fewer significant gender differences were found in the area of household task performance than in the area of decision-making.

Two major conclusions may be drawn. First, in both countries there appears to a strong trend toward a preference for joint decisions. Thus, the Algerians and Americans differed more in the degree of egalitarianism than in the conception of marital roles. This is rather surprising considering the numerous aspects on which Algeria and the United States differ. Such aspects include the historical and cultural backgrounds, the family structure, the political orientation and the socio-economic development. Thus, it

may be argued that the cultural differences in attitudes do not parallel the differences that exist between the two countries. One possible explanation could be the comparability of the samples used. Usually college students tend to have fairly egalitarian views of sex-role (Tomeh, 1978). Further, they are more like one another across cultures than other citizens. Therefore, these students' views of marital equality do not necessarily represent the views of other groups in their respective societies, which implies that other groups are more likely to be different. Second, it is inferred that changes will occur at a much slower pace in traditional sex-related tasks since both men and women reported that domestic chores should preferably be performed by women. Thus, the real meaning of marital equality may lie in the change of traditional sex-roles.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire used in the United States

Informed consent

I understand that I will be asked to complete a set of questionnaires concerning my attitudes and intentions to share equally with my future spouse decision-making and task performance. I will also be asked to read descriptions of different couples and indicate who would make a series of decisions and perform a series of domestic tasks. In addition I will provide some background information about me and my parents. I will receive an experimental credit in exchange for my participation. I also understand that I may request further information about this study at any time and that I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue my participation in the study without penalty. The information that I will provide is confidential and will be treated accordingly.

Name _____

Date _____

Background Information

Please answer the following questions.

- 1. Age _____
- 2. Sex: _____ male _____ female
- 3. Major _____
- 4. What is your college year?
_____ Freshman _____ Junior
_____ Sophomore _____ Senior
- 5. Do you live in the dorm? _____ Yes _____ No
- 6. What is your parents' occupation?

Occupation

Mother _____
Father _____

- 7. What is the highest educational level your parents completed? Place a checkmark (✓) in the appropriate space for each parent.

<u>Educational level</u>	<u>Mother</u>	<u>Father</u>
None	_____	_____
Some elementary school	_____	_____
Elementary school graduate	_____	_____
Some high school	_____	_____
High school graduate	_____	_____
Some college	_____	_____
College graduate	_____	_____
Graduate degree	_____	_____
Other (specify)	_____	_____

Questionnaire A

In this questionnaire you will find descriptions of three different couples. For each couple, please indicate who should make decisions and perform household related tasks. Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
husband husband and wife alone
alone wife equally

Condition I

The wife having more resources than her husband

Couple 2

Mike and Jennifer have been married 6 years and have 2 daughters. Mike comes from a working class family and has one brother and two sisters. He is the only member of the family to have a college degree. After he obtained his bachelor's degree in biology, he found a job as a laboratory technician. He has an annual income of \$15,000. Jennifer comes from a middle class family. She has a master's degree in management and is employed as a consultant. She has an annual income of \$23,000.

As all married couples do, Mike and Jennifer have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

- 3a. Who should make decisions about . . .
- _____ 1. . . . the amount of money to save.
 - _____ 2. . . . how to spend money.
 - _____ 3. . . . how to deal with children.
 - _____ 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
 - _____ 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
 - _____ 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.
- 4a. Who should perform the following tasks?
- _____ 1. cooking
 - _____ 2. dish washing
 - _____ 3. food shopping
 - _____ 4. laundry and ironing
 - _____ 5. taking care of children
 - _____ 6. entertaining children

Couple 3

John met Susie after she completed her graduate studies. John comes from a large working class family. He has a bachelor's degree in education. He teaches in primary school and earns \$14,000 a year. John plans to go to graduate school in a few years. Susie comes from a middle class family. After she obtained her Ph.D. in sociology, she was offered a teaching position in a private college. She has an annual income of \$24,000. John and Susie have been married 6 years and have a daughter and a son.

As all married couples do, John and Susie have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

5a. Who should make decisions about . . .

- 1. . . . the amount of money to save.
- 2. . . . how to spend money.
- 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

6a. Who should perform the following tasks?

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

Condition II

The husband having more resources than his wife

Couple 1

David and Laura have been married for 6 years and have 2 sons. David comes from an upper class family. He has a Ph.D. degree in biology and now teaches at the university. He has an annual income of \$23,000. Laura comes from a middle class family. After she obtained her master's degree in English, she took six months off and travelled extensively in Europe. Now she teaches in high school and has an annual income of \$15,000.

As all married couples do, David and Laura have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

:	<u>1</u>	:	<u>2</u>	:	<u>3</u>	:	<u>4</u>	:	<u>5</u>	:	<u>6</u>	:	<u>7</u>	:
	husband						husband and						wife alone	
	alone						wife equally							

1b. Who should make decisions about . . .

- 1. . . . the amount of money to save.
- 2. . . . how to spend money.
- 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

2b. Who should perform the following tasks?

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

Couple 2

Mike and Jennifer have been married for 6 years and have 2 daughters. Mike comes from a middle class family. He has a master's degree in management and is employed as a consultant. He has an annual income of \$23,000. Jennifer comes from a working class family and has one brother and two sisters. She is the only member of the family to have a college degree. After she obtained her bachelor's degree in biology, she found a job as a laboratory technician. She has an annual income of \$15,000.

As all married couples do, Mike and Jennifer have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

3b. Who should make decisions about . . .

1. . . . the amount of money to save.
2. . . . how to spend money.
3. . . . how to deal with children.
4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

4b. Who should perform the following tasks?

1. cooking
2. dish washing
3. food shopping
4. laundry and ironing
5. taking care of children
6. entertaining children

Couple 3

John met Susie after he completed his graduate studies. John comes from a middle class family. After he obtained his Ph.D. degree in sociology, he was offered a teaching position in a private college. He has an annual income of \$24,000. Susie comes from a large working class family. She has a bachelor's degree in education. She teaches in primary school and earns \$14,000 a year. She plans to go to graduate school in a few years. John and Susie have been married 6 years and have a daughter and a son. As all married couples

As all married couples do, John and Susie have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

- 5b. Who should make decisions about . . .

- _____ 1. . . . the amount of money to save.
- _____ 2. . . . how to spend money.
- _____ 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- _____ 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- _____ 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- _____ 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

- 6b. Who should perform the following tasks?

- _____ 1. cooking
- _____ 2. dish washing
- _____ 3. food shopping
- _____ 4. laundry and ironing
- _____ 5. taking care of children
- _____ 6. entertaining children

Condition III

The husband and wife having equal resources

Couple 1

John and Susie come from working class families. They have been married for 6 years and have two children. John has a bachelor's degree in English and Susie has a bachelor's degree in education. They both teach in primary school. They each earn \$14,000 a year.

As all married couples do, John and Susie have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

1c. Who should make decisions about . . .

- _____ 1. . . . amount of money to save.
- _____ 2. . . . how to spend money.
- _____ 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- _____ 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- _____ 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- _____ 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

2c. Who should perform the following tasks?

- _____ 1. cooking
- _____ 2. dish washing
- _____ 3. food shopping
- _____ 4. laundry and ironing
- _____ 5. taking care of children
- _____ 6. entertaining children

Couple 2

David and Laura, who come from middle class families, met in college. They both have master's degrees in computer science and are employed as computer analysts. They each earn \$22,000 a year. David and Laura have been married for 6 years and have two children. They just bought a house and are in the process of furnishing it.

As all married couples do, David and Laura have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

3c. Who should make decisions about . . .

- 1. . . . amount of money to save.
- 2. . . . how to spend money.
- 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

4c. Who should perform the following tasks?

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

Couple 3

Mike and Jennifer come from upper class families. They got married while pursuing their graduate studies. Mike has a Ph.D. degree in sociology and Jennifer has a Ph.D. degree in psychology. They both teach at the university and they each earn \$23,000 a year. Mike and Jennifer have been married 6 years and have 2 children.

As all married couples do, Mike and Jennifer have decisions to make and tasks to perform. Indicate who should make the following decisions and perform the following tasks, using the 7-point scale below.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 husband alone husband and wife equally wife alone

5c. Who should make decisions about . . .

- 1. . . . amount of money to save.
- 2. . . . how to spend money.
- 3. . . . how to deal with children.
- 4. . . . amount of time to spend with relatives and in-laws.
- 5. . . . amount of time to spend with friends.
- 6. . . . how to spend vacation and leisure time.

6c. Who should perform the following activities?

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

Questionnaire B

1. Married people make decisions in a variety of ways, ranging from either spouse deciding alone to both spouses sharing a decision equally. Considering your own future marriage, which way of making each of the following decisions would you favor most? [Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I favor making the decision alone			I favor sharing the decision equally with my future spouse			I favor letting my future spouse make the decision alone

1. how much money to save
 2. how to spend money
 3. how to deal with children
 4. how much time to spend with relatives and in-laws
 5. how much time to spend with friends
 6. how to spend vacation and leisure time

2. How do you think most people who are important to you believe you should make the following decisions in your own future marriage? [Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.]

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I should make the decision alone			I should share the decision equally with my future spouse			I should let my future spouse make the decision alone

1. how much money to save
 2. how to spend money
 3. how to deal with children
 4. how much time to spend with relatives and in-laws
 5. how much time to spend with friends
 6. how to spend vacation and leisure time

3. People differ in what they personally consider "easy" or "difficult," which may not always be the same as what they consider right or wrong. Considering your own future marriage, what would be the easiest way of making each of the following decisions? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
it would be easiest for me to make the decision alone			it would be easiest to share the decision equally with my future spouse			it would be easiest to let my future spouse make the decision alone

1. how much money to save
 2. how to spend money
 3. how to deal with children
 4. how much time to spend with relatives and in-laws
 5. how much time to spend with friends
 6. how to spend vacation and leisure time

4. Thinking about your own future marriage, how would you intend to make each of the following decisions? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: <u>1</u> : <u>2</u> : <u>3</u> :	: <u>4</u> : <u>5</u> : <u>6</u> :	: <u>7</u> :
I intend to make the decision alone	I intend to share the decision equally with my future spouse	I intend to let my future spouse make the decision alone

- 1. how much money to save
- 2. how to spend money
- 3. how to deal with children
- 4. how much time to spend with relatives and in-laws
- 5. how much time to spend with friends
- 6. how to spend vacation and leisure time

5. Married people perform tasks in and around the house in a variety of ways, ranging from either spouse performing them alone to both spouses sharing them equally. Considering your own future marriage, which way of performing each of the following tasks would you favor most? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: <u>1</u> : <u>2</u> : <u>3</u> :	: <u>4</u> : <u>5</u> : <u>6</u> :	: <u>7</u> :
I favor doing it alone	I favor sharing it equally with my future spouse	I favor letting my future spouse do it alone

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

6. How do you think most people who are important to you believe you should perform the following tasks in your own future marriage? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: <u>1</u> : <u>2</u> : <u>3</u> :	: <u>4</u> : <u>5</u> : <u>6</u> :	: <u>7</u> :
I should do it alone	I should share it equally with my future spouse	I should let my future spouse do it alone

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

7. People differ in what they personally consider "easy" or "difficult," which may not always be the same as what they consider right or wrong. Considering your own future marriage, what would be the easiest way of performing each of the following tasks? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 it would be eas- it would be eas- it would be eas-
 iest for me to iest to share it iest to let my
 do it alone equally with my future spouse do
 future spouse it alone

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

8. Thinking about your own future marriage, how would you intend to perform each of the following tasks? Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 I intend to do I intend to share I intend to let my
 it alone it equally with future spouse do
 my own future it alone
 spouse

- 1. cooking
- 2. dish washing
- 3. food shopping
- 4. laundry and ironing
- 5. taking care of children
- 6. entertaining children

Questionnaire C

9. To what extent are you in favor of or opposed to sharing important family decisions equally with your own future spouse? Circle the number that best describes your response.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 very much in favor do not care very much opposed

10. Indicate for each statement whether you believe other people think you should share important family decisions equally with your own future spouse. Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale. Skip items that are not applicable to you.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 very likely neither very unlikely

- ____ 1. Most people who are important to me think I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 2. My brother(s) think I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 3. My sister(s) think I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 4. My mother thinks I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 5. My father thinks I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 6. My relatives think I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.
 ____ 7. My close friends think I should share important family decisions equally with my own future spouse.

11. For each statement indicate to what extent you want to do what other people think you should do. Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale. Skip items that are not applicable to you.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 very likely neither very unlikely

In general, I want to do what . . .

- ____ 1. . . . most people who are important to me think I should do.
 ____ 2. . . . my brother(s) think I should do.
 ____ 3. . . . my sister(s) think I should do.
 ____ 4. . . . my mother thinks I should do.
 ____ 5. . . . my father thinks I should do.
 ____ 6. . . . my relatives think I should do.
 ____ 7. . . . my close friends think I should do.

12. How easy or difficult would it be for you to share important family decisions equally with your own future spouse? Circle the number that best describes your response.
- : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
- very easy neither very
difficult

13. Indicate whether you intend to share important family decisions equally with your own future spouse. Circle one number.
- : 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
- very likely neither very unlikely
14. For each statement, indicate how much you agree or disagree by circling a number from 1 to 5.

- [illegible]

Sharing important family decisions equally with my own future spouse would . . .

1. . . . lead to misunderstanding between us.
2. . . . lead to a more satisfying and rewarding relationship between us.
3. . . . decrease our togetherness.
4. . . . decrease conflicts between us.
5. . . . relieve me from assuming the entire responsibility for important family decisions by myself.
6. . . . lead to poor decisions.
7. . . . decrease our communication.

15. For each statement place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

very good neither very bad

1. A misunderstanding between my own future spouse and me would be
2. Having a satisfying and rewarding relationship with my own future spouse would be
3. Decreasing togetherness between my own future spouse and me would be
4. Decrease of conflict between my own future spouse and me would be
5. Relief from assuming the entire responsibility for important family decisions would be
6. Reaching poor decisions would be
7. Decreasing communication between me and my own future spouse would be

16. To what extent are you in favor of or opposed to sharing the responsibility for domestic chores equally with your own future spouse? Circle the number that best describes your response.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very much in favor do not care very much opposed

17. Indicate for each statement whether you believe other people think you should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with your own future spouse. Place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale. Skip items that are not applicable to you.

1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
very likely : neither : very unlikely

- _____ 1. Most people who are important to me think I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 2. My brother(s) think I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 3. My sister(s) think I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 4. My father thinks I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 5. My mother thinks I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 6. My relatives think I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.
- _____ 7. My close friends think I should share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse.

18. How easy or difficult would it be for you to share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with your own future spouse? Circle the number that best describes your response.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

very easy neither very
difficult

19. Indicate whether you intend to share the responsibility for domestic chores equally with your own future spouse. Circle the number that best describes your response.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

very likely neither very unlikely

20. For each statement place the number that best describes your response in the space provided next to each statement, using the following 7-point scale.

[illegible]

Sharing the responsibility for domestic chores equally with my own future spouse would. . .

- 1. . . . lead to misunderstanding between us.
- 2. . . . lead to a more satisfying and rewarding relationship between us.
- 3. . . . decrease our togetherness.
- 4. . . . decrease conflicts between us.
- 5. . . . relieve me from assuming the entire responsibility by myself.
- 6. . . . reduce the time we would devote to each other and to our own activities.
- 7. . . . set a poor example for our children.

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire used in Algeria

Questions d'ordre général

Veillez répondre aux questions suivantes.

1. Age: _____
2. Sexe (cochez l'espace correspondant).
 _____ masculin
 _____ féminin
3. Branche d'études: _____
4. Quelle est votre année d'études? cochez l'espace correspondant ?
 _____ première année
 _____ deuxième année
 _____ troisième année
 _____ quatrième année
5. Habitez-vous en cité universitaire?
 _____ oui
 _____ non
6. Quelle est la profession de vos parents?
 _____ mère
 _____ père
7. Quel est le niveau d'études de vos parents? Cochez l'espace correspondant.

<u>Niveau d'études</u>	<u>Père</u>	<u>Mère</u>
Aucun	_____	_____
Niveau primaire	_____	_____
Niveau secondaire	_____	_____
Niveau universitaire	_____	_____
Niveau post-universitaire	_____	_____
Autre (precisez)	_____	_____

Condition I

The wife having more resources than her husband

Partie A

Dans cette partie du questionnaire, vous trouverez la description de trois couples. Pour chaque couple, indiquez qui devrait prendre certaines décisions et assumer certaines tâches.

Couple 1

Mohamed et Aicha sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont 2 enfants. Mohamed est issu d'une famille assez aisée. Après avoir obtenu sa licence en anglais, Mohamed a passé 6 mois en Angleterre pour se perfectionner. Maintenant, il enseigne au lycée et a un salaire mensuel de 2200 DA. Aicha, qui est issue d'une famille très aisée, a un magister en biologie. Elle est assistante à l'université et perçoit un salaire mensuel de 3500 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Mohamed et Aicha ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (Décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

1a. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

2a. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marche
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 2

Linda et Djamel sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont deux filles. Djamel est issu d'une famille nombreuse très modeste. Il est le seul membre de sa famille à avoir fait des études universitaires. Djamel a une licence en biologie. Il a un poste d'attaché de recherche dans un laboratoire. Il a un salaire mensuel de 2500 DA. Linda est issue d'une famille assez aisée. Elle a un magister en gestion et est employée comme chargée d'études à l'ONRS (office national de recherche scientifique). Elle a un salaire mensuel de 3500 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Linda et Djamel ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

3a. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

4a. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 3

Samir est issu d'une famille nombreuse très modeste. Il a une licence en histoire. Il enseigne au lycée et a un salaire mensuel de 2300 DA. Samir aimerait continuer ses études supérieures (magister) plus tard. Fatiha est d'une famille assez aisée. Elle a un magister en sociologie. Elle est assistante à l'université et a un salaire mensuel de 3600 DA. Samir et Fatiha, qui sont mariés depuis 6 ans, ont une fille et un garçon.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Samir et Fatiha ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

5a. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

6a. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Condition II

The husband having more resources than his wife

Partie A

Dans cette partie du questionnaire, vous trouverez la description de trois couples. Pour chaque couple, indiquez qui devrait prendre certaines décisions et assumer certaines tâches.

Couple 1

Mohamed et Aicha sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont 2 enfants. Mohamed est issu d'une famille très aisée. Il a un magister en biologie. Il est assistant à l'université et perçoit un salaire mensuel de 3500 DA. Aicha vient d'une famille assez aisée. Après avoir obtenu sa licence en anglais, elle a passé 6 mois en Angleterre pour se perfectionner. Maintenant, elle enseigne au lycée et a un salaire mensuel de 2200 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Mohamed et Aicha ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous ? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fournie à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

1b. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

2b. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 2

Linda et Djamel sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont 2 filles. Djamel est issu d'une famille assez aisée. Il a un magister en gestion et est employé comme chargé d'études à l'ONRS (office National de recherche scientifique). Il a un salaire mensuel de 3500 DA. Linda est issue d'une famille nombreuse très modeste. Elle est la seule de sa famille à avoir fait des études universitaires. Elle a une licence en biologie. Elle a un poste d'attachée de recherche dans un laboratoire. Elle a un salaire mensuel de 2500 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Linda et Djamel ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

3b. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

4b. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 3

Samir est issu d'une famille assez aisée. Il a un magister en sociologie. Il est assistant à l'université et perçoit un salaire mensuel de 3600 DA. Fatiha est issue d'une famille nombreuse très modeste. Elle a une licence en histoire. Elle enseigne au lycée et a un salaire mensuel de 2300 DA. Fatiha aimerait continuer ses études supérieures (magister) plus tard. Samir et Fatiha, qui sont mariés depuis 6 ans, ont une fille et un garçon.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Samir et Fatiha ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiellement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiellement	la femme seule

5b. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

6b. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Condition III

The husband and wife having equal resources

Partie A

Dans cette partie du questionnaire, vous trouverez la description de trois couples différents. Pour chaque couple, indiquez qui devrait prendre certaines décisions et se charger de certaines tâches.

Couple 1

Aïcha et Mohamed sont tous deux issus de famille très modeste. Ils sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont deux enfants. Ils ont tous les deux le niveau du B.E.M. et enseignent à l'école primaire. Ils ont chacun un salaire mensuel de 1300 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Aïcha et Mohamed ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous ? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme. seule

1c. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

2c. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 2

Linda et Djamel sont tous deux issus de famille assez aisée. Ils ont fait connaissance à l'université. Ils sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont deux enfants. Ils ont tous les deux un magister en informatique. Ils sont employés comme chargés de recherche à l'ONRS (Office National de Recherche Scientifique) et ont chacun un salaire mensuel de 3500 DA.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Linda et Djamel ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

3c. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

4c. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Couple 3

Fatiha et Samir, qui sont tous deux de famille très aisée, se sont connus à l'université. Ils ont tous les deux suivi des études universitaires. Fatiha a un doctorat en psychologie et Samir a un doctorat en sociologie. Ils enseignent tous les deux à l'université et ont chacun un salaire mensuel de 4500 DA. Fatiha et Samir sont mariés depuis 6 ans et ont 2 enfants.

Comme tous les couples mariés, Fatiha et Samir ont des décisions à prendre et des tâches à assumer. D'après vous, qui devrait prendre les décisions et assumer les tâches citées ci-dessous? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (la signification des chiffres est indiquée sur l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique (décisions et tâches)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
le mari seul	le mari essentiel- lement	le mari un peu plus que la femme	le mari et la femme à part égale	la femme un peu plus que le mari	la femme essentiel- lement	la femme seule

5c. Qui devrait prendre les décisions au sujet de...

- ☐ a... la somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b... la manière de dépenser l'argent
- ☐ c... la manière d'éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d... le temps consacré aux beaux parents et à la famille.
- ☐ e... le temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f... des vacances et des loisirs

6c. Qui devrait assumer les tâches suivantes?

- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. prendre soin des enfants (leur donner à manger, etc..)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (jeux, etc..)

Partie B

1. Les gens mariés prennent les décisions de manières différentes. Les décisions peuvent être prises par l'un des conjoints seulement ou bien elles peuvent être partagées de façon égale par les deux conjoints. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale, comment préférez-vous prendre les décisions suivantes. Pour chaque décision énumérée, indiquez votre ordre de préférence par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je préfère prendre la décision seul(e)			Je préfère partager la décision de façon égale avec mon futur conjoint			Je préfère laisser la décision à mon futur conjoint

- ☐ a. somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b. manière dont l'argent doit être dépensé
- ☐ c. comment éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d. temps consacré aux beaux-parents et à la famille
- ☐ e. temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f. comment passer les vacances et loisirs

2. A votre avis, comment est-ce que les gens qui comptent pour vous pensent que vous devriez prendre les décisions suivantes dans votre future relation conjugale. Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre de votre choix dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ils pensent que je devrais prendre la décision seul(e)			Ils pensent que je devrais partager la décision de façon égale avec mon futur conjoint			Ils pensent que je devrais laisser la décision à mon futur conjoint

- ☐ a. somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b. manière dont l'argent doit être dépensé
- ☐ c. comment éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d. temps consacré aux beaux-parents et à la famille
- ☐ e. temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f. comment passer les vacances et loisirs

3. Les gens ont des opinions différentes sur ce qui est "facile" ou "difficile," ce qui ne correspond pas toujours à ce qui est bon ou mauvais. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale, quelle est la manière la plus facile de prendre les décisions suivantes. Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

Il me serait plus facile de prendre la décision seul(e)	Il me serait plus facile de partager la décision de façon égale avec mon futur conjoint	Il me serait plus facile de laisser la décision à mon futur conjoint
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- ☐ a. somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b. manière dont l'argent doit être dépensé
- ☐ c. comment éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d. temps consacré aux beaux-parents et à la famille
- ☐ e. temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f. comment passer les vacances et loisirs

4. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale, comment envisagez-vous de prendre les décisions suivantes? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

J'envisage de prendre la décision seul(e)	J'envisage de partager la décision de façon égale avec mon futur conjoint	J'envisage de laisser la décision à mon futur conjoint
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- ☐ a. somme d'argent à économiser
- ☐ b. manière dont l'argent doit être dépensé
- ☐ c. comment éduquer les enfants
- ☐ d. temps consacré aux beaux-parents et à la famille
- ☐ e. temps consacré aux amis
- ☐ f. comment passer les vacances et loisirs

5. Les gens mariés s'occupent des tâches ménagères et des enfants de façon différente. Les tâches peuvent être assumées par l'un des conjoints seulement ou bien elles peuvent être assumées d'une façon égale par les deux conjoints. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale, comment préférez-vous vous occuper des tâches suivantes? Pour chaque tâche énumérée, indiquez votre ordre de préférence par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :

Je préfère m'en occuper seul(e)	Je préfère que nous nous occupions de façon égale	Je préfère laisser mon futur conjoint s'en occuper seul
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- ☐ a. faire la cuisine
- ☐ b. faire la vaisselle
- ☐ c. faire le marché
- ☐ d. faire la lessive et repasser
- ☐ e. s'occuper des enfants (ex: leur donner à manger)
- ☐ f. distraire les enfants (ex: jeux)

6. D'après vous, comment est-ce que les gens qui comptent pour vous pensent que vous devriez vous occuper des tâches suivantes dans votre future relation conjugale ? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: <u>1</u> :	<u>2</u> :	<u>3</u> :	<u>4</u> :	<u>5</u> :	<u>6</u> :	<u>7</u> :
Ils pensent que je devrais m'en occuper seul(e)			Ils pensent que nous devrions nous en occuper de façon égale			Ils pensent que je devrais laisser mon futur conjoint s'en occuper seul (e)

- a. faire la cuisine
- b. faire la vaisselle
- c. faire le marché
- d. faire la lessive et repasser
- e. s'occuper des enfants (ex: leur donner à manger)
- f. distraire les enfants (ex: jeux)

7. Les gens ont des opinions différentes sur ce qui est "facile" ou "difficile," ce qui ne correspond pas toujours à ce qui est bon ou mauvais. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale , quelle est la manière la plus facile d'assumer les tâches suivantes? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: <u>1</u> :	<u>2</u> :	<u>3</u> :	<u>4</u> :	<u>5</u> :	<u>6</u> :	<u>7</u> :
Il me serait plus facile de m'en occuper seul(e)			Il serait plus facile que nous nous en occupions de façon égale			Il serait plus facile de laisser mon futur conjoint s'en occuper seul

- a. faire la cuisine
- b. faire la vaisselle
- c. faire le marché
- d. faire la lessive et repasser
- e. s'occuper des enfants (ex: leur donner à manger)
- f. distraire les enfants (ex: jeux)

8. Selon l'idée que vous vous faites de votre future relation conjugale , comment envisagez-vous de vous occuper des tâches suivantes? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: <u>1</u> :	<u>2</u> :	<u>3</u> :	<u>4</u> :	<u>5</u> :	<u>6</u> :	<u>7</u> :
J'envisage de m'en occuper seul(e)			J'envisage de partager la responsabilité des tâches de façon égale avec mon futur conjoint			J'envisage de laisser mon futur conjoint s'en occuper seul

- a. faire la cuisine
- b. faire la vaisselle
- c. faire le marché
- d. faire la lessive et repasser
- e. s'occuper des enfants (ex: leur donner à manger)
- f. distraire les enfants (ex: jeux)

Partie C

9. Jusqu'à quel point êtes-vous favorable ou défavorable à un partage égal des décisions importantes du ménage avec votre futur conjoint ? Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre attitude.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
très favorable indifférent très défavorable

10. Croyez-vous que les gens cités ci-dessous pensent que vous devriez partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec votre futur conjoint ? Indiquez votre opinion par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique. Sauter les rubriques qui ne s'appliquent pas à vous.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
Il y a de fortes chances ni l'un ni l'autre Il y a très peu de chances

- ___ a. les gens qui comptent pour moi pensent que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ b. mon/mes frère(s) pense(nt) que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ c. ma/mes soeur(s) pense(nt) que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ d. mon père pense que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ e. ma mère pense que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ f. ma famille (oncles, etc) pense que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
___ g. mes proches amis pensent que je devrais partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint

11. Jusqu'à quel point acceptez-vous d'agir comme votre entourage le voudrait? Indiquez votre réponse par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous)? Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique. Sauter les rubriques qui ne s'appliquent pas à vous.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
très probable ni l'un ni l'autre très improbable

En général, j'accepte d'agir comme . . .

- ___ a. . . le voudrait les gens qui comptent pour moi
___ b. . . mon/mes frère(s) le voudrai(en)t
___ c. . . ma/mes soeur(s) le voudrai(en)t
___ d. . . mon père le voudrait
___ e. . . ma mère le voudrait
___ f. . . ma famille (oncles, etc) le voudrait
___ g. . . mes proches amis le voudraient

12. Jusqu'à quel point vous sera-t-il facile ou difficile de partager de façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec votre futur conjoint ? Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre réponse.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
très facile ni facile ni difficile très difficile

13. Indiquez si vous avez l'intention de partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec votre futur conjoint . Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre réponse.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
J'ai la ferme intention ni l'un ni l'autre Je n'ai pas du tout l'intention

14. Le partage égal des décisions importantes du ménage peut avoir plusieurs conséquences sur les conjoints. Pour chacune des conséquences suggérées, indiquez votre opinion par un chiffre de 1 à 7. Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
Il y a de fortes chances ni l'un ni l'autre Il y a très peu de chances

Le partage égal des décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint . . .

- a. . . . créerait des malentendus entre nous
- b. . . . nous permettrait d'avoir une relation plus satisfaisante et positive
- c. . . . affaiblirait nos rapports de couple
- d. . . . réduirait les tensions entre nous
- e. . . . m'éviterait d'assumer tout(e) seul(e) l'entière responsabilité
- f. . . . mènerait à de mauvaises décisions
- g. . . . diminuerait notre dialogue

15. Les conséquences du partage égal des décisions importantes du ménage peuvent être jugées de manières différentes. Pour chacune des conséquences citées ci-dessous, indiquez votre opinion par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
bon(ne) (s) ni bon(ne) (s) mauvais(e) (s)
ni mauvais(e)(s)

- a. les malentendus entre mon futur conjoint et moi seraient...
- b. avoir une relation plus satisfaisante et positive avec mon futur conjoint serait...
- c. l'affaiblissement de nos rapport de couple serait...
- d. la réduction des tensions entre mon futur conjoint et moi serait...
- e. ne pas assumer l'entière responsabilité des décisions importantes du ménage tout(e) seul(e) serait....
- f. prendre de mauvaises décisions serait...
- g. la diminution du dialogue entre mon futur conjoint et moi serait...

16. Jusqu'à quel point êtes-vous favorable ou défavorable à un partage égal de la responsabilité des tâches ménagères avec votre futur conjoint? Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre attitude.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
très favorable indifférent très défavorable

17. Croyez-vous que les gens cités ci-dessous pensent que vous devriez partager d'une façon égale la responsabilité des tâches ménagères avec votre futur conjoint? Indiquez votre opinion par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique. Sauter les rubriques qui ne s'appliquent pas à vous.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
Il y a de fortes chances ni l'un ni l'autre Il y a très peu de chances

- a. les gens qui comptent pour moi pensent que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- b. mon/mes frère(s) pense(nt) que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- c. ma/mes soeur(s) pense(nt) que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- d. mon père pense que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- e. ma mère pense que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- f. ma famille (oncles, etc) pense que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint
- g. mes proches amis pensent que je devrais partager d'une façon égale les décisions importantes du ménage avec mon futur conjoint

18. Jusqu'à quel point vous sera-t-il facile ou difficile de partager d'une façon égale la responsabilité des tâches ménagères avec votre futur conjoint? Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre réponse.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
très facile ni facile ni difficile très difficile

19. Indiquez si vous avez l'intention de partager d'une façon égale la responsabilité des tâches ménagères avec votre futur conjoint. Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre intention.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
J'ai la ferme intention ni l'un ni l'autre Je n'ai pas du tout l'intention

20. Le partage égal de la responsabilité des tâches ménagères peut avoir plusieurs conséquences sur la vie conjugale et familiale. Pour chacune des conséquences suggérées, indiquez votre opinion par un chiffre de 1 à 7 (voir l'échelle ci-dessous). Placez le chiffre choisi dans l'espace fourni à côté de chaque rubrique.

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 Il y a de ni l'un Il y a très
 fortes ni l'autre peu de
 chances chances

Le partage égal de la responsabilité des tâches ménagères avec mon futur conjoint
 . . .

- a. . . . créerait des malentendus entre nous
 b. . . . nous permettrait d'avoir une relation plus satisfaisante et positive
 c. . . . affaiblirait nos rapports de couple
 d. . . . réduirait les tensions entre nous
 e. . . . m'éviterait d'assumer tout(e) seul(e) l'entière responsabilité
 f. . . . réduirait le temps que nous passerions ensemble et celui que nous consacrerions à nos activités respectives
 g. . . . donnerait un mauvais exemple aux enfants
21. Les conséquences du partage égal des tâches ménagères sur la vie conjugale et familiale peuvent être jugées de façon différente. Pour chacune des deux conséquences suggérées ci-dessous, donnez votre opinion. Entourez le chiffre (de 1 à 7) qui exprime le plus exactement votre réponse.

- a. la réduction du temps que mon futur conjoint et moi passerions ensemble et celui que nous consacrerions à nos activités respectives serait

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 bonne ni bonne mauvaise
 ni mauvaise

- b. donner un mauvais exemple aux enfants serait

: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :
 bon ni bon mauvais
 ni mauvais

